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ART. I.—AGRICULTURAL COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

IN surveying the vast extent of our national domain, we can hardly fail to be amazed at the amount of its agricultural resources. Stretching through various degrees of latitude, and exhibiting a soil which is warmed by a temperate as well as a tropical climate, it yields nearly all the grains, grasses, and vegetables that are required for the substantial comfort of man, as well as those more luxurious fruits that administer to his tastes and tend to pamper his appetites. Taking the six states of New England, which are limited in their territory, we find that although the soil is of primitive formation, and much broken by hills and ledges of rocks, the common grains, such as rye, corn, buckwheat, potatoes, and most of the garden vegetables, are produced upon its hill-sides and in its valleys to a considerable extent, which may be much increased by improved methods of culture, although a large portion of its surplus population is annually drained off to the more productive lands of the new states of the west. Agriculture, in this portion of our country, is not, however, prosecuted in that scientific and improved form which prevails in England, and by which the crops of that portion of Great Britain are quadrupled. The common and ordinary means which were formerly used for the cultivation of the soil, are now too generally retained; and the necessary consequence is, that the amount of agricultural produce raised is not sufficient for the support of its population. In the state of Massachusetts, however, which has exceeded all other of the New England states in the point to which it has carried the agricultural interest, a better form of husbandry exists. Not only has greater attention been paid to this interest as a science, but the influence of that improvement is experienced in the greater abundance and the superiority of its crops. Passing to the state of New York, we find the advantages furnished by the interest of agriculture most signally displayed. In that wide alluvial soil, stretching away from the banks of the

Hudson to the shores of Lake Erie, the surface of the territory, throughout nearly its entire extent, is checkered with prosperous farms, tilled by an agricultural population which is probably exceeded by that of no other portion of the country in the independence and solid comfort which they enjoy—a condition that is principally derived from the cultivation of the soil. In that condition, indeed, we perceive the benefits which might be diffused throughout the whole country were this species of enterprise more widely extended. The production of wheat alone in this state, yields a vast revenue to its producers; and the flour which is poured out from its mills, and the quantity of beef, pork, and other products of stock-husbandry, as well as grains and vegetables, which fill the channel of the Hudson, supply the wants of the villages upon its banks, and the great metropolis at its mouth. Passing towards the south, we reach the territory of Western Pennsylvania, cultivated with pains-taking thrift by Dutch farmers, a source of no inconsiderable wealth to the state. Arriving in Maryland, we enter upon a soil which, while it produces most of the grasses and grains of the north in as great abundance as even the state of New York, yields also the tobacco; and from that state, through Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, we have a territory which stretches away in plain and valley, inviting the labors of the plough, and giving in return, not only the vegetable products of the north, but also those great staples, rice, tobacco, and cotton.

Nor are the agricultural advantages of this portion of our territory, however great, equal to those furnished by the soil of the west. The valley of the Mississippi, or that domain which extends from the head of Lake Superior to New Orleans, watered by about three thousand miles of that great river, spreads out a more fertile territory, as has been justly remarked by a recent French traveller,\* than that of any other portion of the globe. The oak-lands, extending through Michigan to the borders of the lakes, the prairies of Illinois, the deep mould which stretches from the southern borders of the lakes beyond both banks of the Ohio, the forests of Kentucky, and the numerous states organized along the Mississippi, the Illinois, and the Missouri, from the rugged cliffs of Lake Superior to the cotton and sugar plantations of Louisiana and Alabama, develop a field for agriculture which almost bewilders us by its magnitude.

The enterprise of our countrymen, discerning the resources of the soil, has kept pace with their development, by marking out important channels of trade through which the agricultural products of the interior can be most conveniently transported to their respective markets. The long lines of canals and railroads that have been projected and partially carried out, both at the north, the south, and the west, are designed not less to provide the conveniences of personal travel, than to furnish the means of transportation for their agricultural products. Connecting the principal commercial marts of our country, and making up by art what nature has left undone, these improvements, while they accommodate the public in its hours of mere amusement, have a direct tendency to stimulate the labors of agriculture by furnishing to its products convenient and rapid markets, constituting an electric chain through which will vibrate the opinions as well as the trade of the country. Added to this, we are supplied by nature with some of the noblest arteries of internal navigation that are to be

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\* See *Democracy in America*, by Alexis de Tocqueville.

found in the world, and which furnish the safest means for the transportation of articles of large bulk. The products of New England may be transported from the interior through the artificial public works to which we have alluded, that are designed to run to the navigable waters of the rivers which partially penetrate the interior, or they may be conveyed coastwise from state to state even to the mouth of the Mississippi. In New York we find the Hudson coursing, perhaps, the most densely populated portion of this state from Albany, its largest interior city, to the great metropolis at its mouth; while the agricultural productions of Pennsylvania and Maryland find a ready market at home, and those of the south, which are required to be exported, are provided with an ocean pathway to any port. The navigable advantages of the west are, perhaps, more extraordinary than those that are found in the eastern portion of the country. New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin, have harbors upon the great lakes which are stretched thousands of miles through the forest of our northwestern territory—a territory that is more prolific of agricultural resources than any other portion of our wide-spread empire; and when we consider the advance of population into that territory, and the measure of production which it has already attained, we cannot fail to be convinced that it will soon become, in point of strength and influence, the most important part of our republic. From the shores of Illinois we have also a continuous line of navigation through the states bordering the Mississippi, which annually pour out a vast amount of products to the great commercial mart at its mouth—the city of New Orleans. Such are the agricultural advantages of the country, and such the navigable arteries and public works which furnish channels for the transportation of its productions.

In this country extraordinary motives, certainly, are held out for the exercise of agriculture. Besides the constitution of the country, and the laws of the several states, which guaranty to all its citizens a participation in the national legislation, a further inducement is held out by the low price of lands. In the new states of the west, it is well known that an abundance of the most fertile soil can be procured at the low price of one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre, with the best title; a soil, too, which furnishes in great abundance most of the comforts, and many of the luxuries of life. When to this is added the fact, that by the advance of population, and the necessary growth of the country, this soil, thus purchased at that low rate, will gradually augment in value as the settlement of the surrounding territory is increased, little additional motive could be urged for its cultivation, especially to that body of men who might linger in the large cities of our older states, dependent upon the chance opportunities of labor which might present themselves, and who would be cut off entirely from these opportunities when a sudden mercantile revulsion should, as has frequently occurred, sweep away the great bulk of the business population in one common wreck.

We perceive in the habitudes of agriculture many advantages possessed by no other form of occupation. The cultivation of the soil by its own proprietor, while attended with hardships, is, in a great measure, relieved from those vexatious cares which disturb the population of large cities. In the first place, he is not confined to the counter of a narrow shop, the attendant upon every purchaser who may enter it on business. He is not obliged to spend wearisome days and nights in toiling over a desk, and



has no visions of bankrupt debtors, or protested notes, to disturb his midnight slumbers. Nor has he any uninsured ships upon the ocean, at the mercy of the winds and waves. On each occurring season he sows his fields, with a calm reliance upon the bounty of an all-wise Providence, that in due time sunshine and shower will ripen them to the harvest. He is troubled little with the derangement of the currency, for he knows that should all the banks fail, his own children will not want for bread. He possesses a freehold—a tract of land which, under ordinary circumstances, will yield him the means of subsistence; and, with this conviction, if he sows his crops with labor, he reaps them with joy. He looks out upon his domain, and feels that he has an interest at stake in his country, for his own freehold is a part of its territory. Should the market for his products be contracted, he experiences no alarm, for the profits of his sales would only be required to furnish a few additional articles of taste. He feels, in fact, as a freeman always should feel, the lord of his own domain.

Few more beautiful pictures have been painted for us than those of agricultural and pastoral life, that may be found in the *Eclogues* and the *Georgics* of the ancient poet Virgil. In those parts of his works we have not only the most delightful scenes of such experience, but a treatise, learned for that day, upon the most approved forms of agriculture. And, indeed, how can we fail to believe that such forms of rural taste, such quiet scenes of agricultural simplicity and contentment, could be repeated even in our own continent were men disposed to exercise the means? And these means are obvious. Instead of employing the science of agriculture (we term it a science, because the application of chemistry to the subject has made it one,) as a mode of making money alone, could we not exercise it with greater advantage as a matter of taste as well as of profit? In order to be convinced of the influence that might thus be produced upon the state of agriculture, by blending taste with utility, we require only to visit some of those gardens in the vicinity of some of our larger cities, where taste has been sought as well as utility. Even in these private establishments, laid out, for the most part, to gratify private taste, we perceive in their beautiful decorations—in their grottoes of shells washed by cool waters—in their hermit's cells covered with mouldering moss—in their artificial lakes of silver and golden fish—and in their marble statues, disposed in becoming decency along their shaded walks, as well as in the various species of vegetation that furnish refreshing shades, and the variety of flowers which bloom upon different portions of their areas,—scenes which, if not envied by a Shenstone, might almost vie with his classic and rural retreat.

Independently of those quiet beauties which belong to the more tasteful science of horticulture, how intimately might it be blended with the more substantial labors of agriculture! How easily might flocks of grazing sheep and cattle upon the hill-side overlook the broad wheat or corn field, and the artificial pond,—and the droves of cows, which, refreshed, return to their stall to replenish the dairy, breathe the fragrance of roses from the flower-garden,—and earth thus be made like a second paradise!

That a new era is dawning upon the prospects of agriculture in our own republic, we think there can be but little doubt. The deep interest which the subject has recently excited in various parts of the country, and the motives which almost everywhere exist to extend its operations, point to a marked improvement in this department of labor. Almost every one en-



gaged in the bustling scenes of trade, has pictured to his mind a day when he shall retire from the dusty track of business, and spend his remaining days in a quiet agricultural retreat. Hence it is that most merchants engage, with all the ardor of manhood, in the acquisition of wealth; and after the prime and vigor of youth are spent in such toils, the desire of accumulation increases with the acquisition itself, until, perchance, death finds them, like the dray-horse, dead in the traces. Such, we doubt not, is the history of thousands in our own country, who, in the absence of this ardent thirst for gain, might have enjoyed much happier, purer, and longer lives, had they more early devoted themselves to the invigorating and noble pursuit of agriculture. How few there are who adopt this pursuit as one of taste and inclination! With the example of the father of his country before them—for Washington was but a farmer—they toil on in the marts of trade with untiring assiduity, until a fortune shall have been acquired, which, in most cases, eludes their grasp, without due attention to the cultivation of other qualities which might enable them to enjoy it if acquired; or some commercial explosion wrecks them, stranding them like a shattered hulk upon the shore, blasted in their hopes, and cast down in the depths of poverty and despair!

We have indulged in these few introductory remarks, as naturally growing out of the subject into which we design to enter at some length, namely, the agricultural commerce of the United States. We mean by agricultural commerce, those staples furnished by the cultivation of our soil, that yield a considerable portion of the materials of our foreign and domestic trade.

During the early colonization of the country, it could hardly have been expected that agriculture should have flourished to any great extent. The few settlements that were sprinkled over what was then a mere wilderness, while their population was not so great as to make any considerable inroads into the forest, were obliged to contend with other obstacles connected with the laying of the foundations of new states, in a territory then but little known, and occupied by hostile tribes of savages, as well as by rival civilized powers.

The principal agricultural products indigenous to the country, and which were cultivated by the native Indian tribes, were corn, peas, beans, and tobacco; and when Jacques Cartier penetrated the interior of Canada, as early as 1535, he found fields of the first-named products spread along its shores. Indian corn, it is well known, is one of the original productions of the country; and the maize which was produced upon the prairies and table-lands of the whole territory, were their common articles of food. When, in fact, our country was first colonized by Europeans, the partial cultivation of the soil was found necessary for the support of the inhabitants, and not only were the different species of grains, but agricultural implements also, imported in the first ships that arrived with emigrants from abroad. The magnitude and fertility of the domain furnished ample means and motives for the cultivation of the earth; and we may imagine the colonies of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and the south, clearing away their small patches of land for husbandry, like the settlers in the remote wilderness of the west at the present time. Upon that broad region which is stretched along the St. Lawrence, the lakes, and the Mississippi, the few feeble French colonies that were scattered through the forest, found it a matter of convenience, while extending their ecclesiasti-

cal influence, and in prosecuting the fur trade upon the waters of the northwest, to practise agricultural enterprise to some extent, for their necessary support; and Charlevoix, who, as early as 1720, passed through the lakes, in describing the lands bordering the Detroit, remarks: "They are not equally proper for every sort of grain, but most of them are of a wonderful fertility, and I have known some produce good wheat for eighteen years running, without any manure; and besides, all of them are proper for some particular use."\*

The agricultural products of the country, constituting the principal portion of our domestic exports, consist of those which may be considered articles of food and derived from the soil, and the products of animals, whether employed as food or those used for other purposes; among these may be enumerated, wheat, corn, rye, oats, peas, beans, potatoes, rice, tobacco, beef, pork, tallow, hides, butter, cheese, lard, sugar, cotton, indigo, flaxseed, wax, and other products of minor importance; most of which articles we propose briefly to consider. The soil and climate of the country are favorable, in greater or less degree, to the production of these articles through its whole extent. The common grains, while they were early cultivated by the colonial emigrants as a means of support, their surplus was usually exported to the West India islands, or to the adjacent markets, where they were exchanged for the sugar and other products that were most required in the colonies.

Wheat appears to have been a staple which early received the attention of the colonists in the northern and middle states, and more recently in the west—although in the states of New England it appears to have greatly declined. Even before the American revolution, and as early as 1770, this grain was exported from the then American colonies to the amount of seven hundred and fifty-one thousand two hundred and forty bushels, and forty-five thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight tons of flour and bread were exported during that year, the whole being valued at \$2,862,190; the amount, varying, of course, according to the domestic consumption or foreign demand, has been in the main increasing to the present period—the West Indies, Spain, Portugal, and Great Britain, furnishing its principal markets abroad. The same general markets are furnished to our production of meal and Indian-corn, rye, rye-meal, oats, beans, peas, potatoes, and many other articles of the same kind—the first being used not only for bread, but being distilled in great quantities at home in the manufacture of the various species of ardent spirits. The spirits distilled from the various species of grain, as well as from molasses, were formerly enormous in quantity; but since the philanthropic exertions of the temperance reformation, it is believed that the amount has been much diminished. Besides the articles which have been mentioned, potatoes and other vegetables, to a large amount, are annually exported abroad, being the surplus of that which is required at home.

Among the products of animals which are yielded to a very large amount in the United States, both at the east and west, we may enumerate the articles of beef, pork, tallow, hams, butter, cheese, lard, live cattle, and horses, which have long been the subjects of export, a vast quantity being required at home by the wants of our growing population.

The four prominent staples of southern product, cotton, tobacco, rice,

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\* See the Journal of Peter Francis Xavier de Charlevoix, vol. ii. p. 2.

and sugar, it is well known, have been long the subject of exportation, and the fruitful source of revenue to that portion of our country. In a former article we have considered the advance of the cotton production, and, in consequence, it is unnecessary to extend our remarks upon that subject at the present time. We come, therefore, first, to a consideration of the subject of tobacco. This product, common to our southern states, as well as those of the west, is indigenous to the country, and appears to have been in extensive use with the Indians upon its first colonization. The elegant and courtly, but unfortunate Sir Walter Raleigh, when he first landed upon the shores of the south, found it growing upon the fields that were cultivated by the Indians; and as early as 1584, he introduced it into England, where it soon attained a pretty extensive use, having been found so valuable that it became the subject of royal proclamation and act of parliament. For the purpose of encouraging its growth in the American colonies, its production in England was prohibited, in order to increase the revenue of the crown—it having become, as early as 1624, a royal monopoly; and the production was soon augmented to so great a degree, that for ten years preceding 1709, the North American colonies annually shipped to the mother country, upon an average, twenty-nine millions of pounds. It appears that before the American revolution, about eighty-five thousand hogsheads, that were valued at about four millions of dollars, were exported, constituting in value nearly one third part of all our colonial exports: but this amount, we learn, has not been swelled since the establishment of the constitution—the average value being, according to a judicious estimate, about six millions of dollars. At the present time it constitutes in value about one ninth of our domestic exports, and derives its principal markets in Great Britain, Holland, the north of Europe, and particularly in France.

Rice, an article which was first produced in the state of South Carolina, and originally the chief staple of its export, as well as the early support of its inhabitants, is cultivated by slaves, to a considerable amount, upon its low grounds, and now forms an important source of revenue to that state. The circumstances of its early introduction into that colony are of some interest, inasmuch as it was a matter of mere accident. In 1693, the then governor of the province, Landgrave Thomas Smith, who had previously resided at Madagascar, observed that this grain grew luxuriantly in the wet and low grounds of that country, and possessing such grounds upon his plantation, he was anxious to try the experiment of its cultivation here. A ship from Madagascar happened, perchance, to put in by stress of weather near Sullivan's Island, and the master, who was an acquaintance of the governor, desired an interview, when his desire to obtain a quantity of rice for the purpose alluded to, was expressed. It fortunately happened that the cook, having been called, informed the parties that he then had on board a small bag of rice suitable for the purpose, which he presented to Mr. Smith, who sowed it in his garden, where it produced a luxuriant crop, which was distributed among his neighbors. It was found to succeed well; and from this accident the cultivation of rice, as the first staple of South Carolina, and the original main support of its colonial population, was successfully established.\* So important had this staple become, that an act of parliament, bearing date in the year 1706, was passed, by which

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\* See Ramsay's History of South Carolina.



it was prohibited from being shipped to any port excepting that of Great Britain ; but in 1730, the act was somewhat relaxed, so that it was allowed, under certain restrictions, to be carried to other ports of Europe. The culture of this staple, indeed, had augmented to so great a degree, that eighteen thousand barrels were exported in the year 1724, and in the year 1761, one hundred thousand barrels were shipped from the single colony of South Carolina. Nine years afterward, namely, in 1770, one hundred and sixty thousand barrels, valued at \$1,530,000, were exported ; the value of the export of this article having reached \$2,774,418 as late as 1833. Besides the quantity that is consumed in the United States, the rice of our own country finds valuable markets at the present time in Russia and Prussia, Sweden and the Swedish West Indies, Denmark and Norway, the Danish West Indies, Holland, the Dutch West Indies, Great Britain, the British West Indies, the British American colonies, Hamburg, Bremen, France, the French West Indies, Spain, the Spanish West Indies, Portugal, Madeira, West Indies generally, and Europe.

The cultivation of sugar, large quantities of which are now made in the Floridas, Georgia, and especially Louisiana—the latter state having produced eighty-seven thousand hogsheads as early as 1823\*—has now become of so much importance as to be regarded one of the most valuable staples of the United States, although probably not indigenous to our own country. Father Hennepin, who, in 1680, sailed down the Mississippi, asserts that the banks of that river were full of canes ; but if this were the fact, they had probably been introduced from St. Domingo—the sugar-cane having been carried to that island one hundred and seventy-four years previous. The recent extension of plantations for the cultivation of sugar, along the shores of the Mississippi, has tended to increase its amount, so that a considerable quantity is now furnished to various parts of the country from the single port of New Orleans ; sugar having as early as 1833, been carried from that port to various parts of the country to the amount of twenty-nine thousand three hundred and thirty-eight hogsheads, and also eighteen thousand four hundred and forty-three hogsheads of molasses.† Besides the cultivation of sugar, indigo to a considerable amount was early produced in the states of the south—Georgia and South Carolina yielding much the greater proportion ; but the culture ceased as soon as cotton was introduced, this being much the most profitable product. The seed of flax was also exported in a small quantity, but the amount has been recently much diminished ; a great quantity of flax, however, being manufactured in the country into the various articles which are required for commerce.

Besides these several articles to which we have alluded, the product of agriculture in its more confined sense, we would enter into a very brief view of those articles which may be considered the offspring of stock-husbandry ; among which may be enumerated, beef, pork, tallow, hams, butter, cheese, lard, live cattle, and horses, that have been long the subjects of domestic production and exportation. It requires but a slight effort of the imagination to convince us of the amount of that species of articles that must be produced in the innumerable farms, both at the east and west,

\* See a volume entitled, "The Nature and Properties of the Sugar-cane, with Practical Directions for the Improvement of its Culture, and the Manufacture of its Products." By George Richardson Porter.

† See Hall's Statistics of the West.

which lie scattered upon the plains and valleys of our wide-spread country, in order to supply the necessary demand occasioned by the augmenting population of the republic, even were none of these articles exported. But notwithstanding the domestic demand, we find that a considerable amount, which may be considered the surplus, has been exported abroad since the year 1791. During that year, 62,771 barrels of beef were exported, and of pork, 27,781; an amount which, in 1833, had advanced to 64,322 barrels of beef, and 105,870 barrels of pork; and the value of the exports of the produce of animals, such as beef, tallow, hides, and live cattle, butter, cheese, pork, bacon, lard, and live hogs, horses, mules, and sheep, upon an average of years, from 1821 to 1833, was about \$2,500,000—they having been exported to the prominent marts of Europe, and even to Africa, as well as the Spanish, French, and British West India islands.\*

Having thus briefly enumerated the several articles which constituted the agricultural staples of our commerce, we propose to enter upon a consideration of the general causes which have borne upon this grand national interest. We have seen that during the early period of our colonization, the agricultural industry of the country was confined to the wants of the few feeble settlers who had planted themselves in the wilderness. Although patches of the coarser grains might have been found flourishing upon the intervals of New England and New York, and scattered rice fields began to wave their golden robes along the marshes upon the coast of South Carolina, and wheat fields dotted the forest at wide intervals from the banks of the St. Lawrence, along the shores of the Mississippi, even to the mouth of that river, this enterprise had arrived to but little vigor; for the country was a wilderness intersected by bridle-paths, and lay, excepting at a few points, in its original solitude. Since that period, the introduction of cotton into the south, and its gradual extension into the new and fertile lands at the southwest, as well as the increase of the production of tobacco, rice, sugar, and wheat, have all thrown a more cheering aspect upon the agricultural prospects of the country.

Besides, the increase of our population, and the more vigorous prosecution of national enterprise, extending through the whole circle of human labor, has diffused a marked influence upon the agricultural interest. The seventeen millions of our people must now be fed, and while agricultural industry is found, in a great measure, necessary to supply their positive requirements, the largest means and motives are provided for its exercise by the cheapness and fertility of the soil. Moreover, the population, which was principally confined to the principal streams of the Atlantic frontier, that intersected the older states of the east from Maine to Florida, have, since the old northwestern territory came under the jurisdiction of the United States, pressed forward upon the new fields of that exhaustless region from the northern states, as brighter prospects seemed to be opened by the progress of that portion of the country; and the planters of the south, as their farms became exhausted, have been found willing to remove with their people westward, for the purpose of cultivating the new and more fruitful cotton lands lying along the banks of the Mississippi and its tributaries; each, however, generally confining itself within their several parallels of latitude. Although the first band of settlers was early planted upon the shores of the Muskingum only fifty years since, we now find that

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\* Pitkin's Statistics.

state advanced to the first rank in its agricultural production. In the heart of that state, as well as the others which now border the lakes and the Mississippi, extensive tracts have been brought under cultivation, and give ample occupation and support to the millions of our population whose settlements now lie scattered through its forests.

The relative proportion of the agricultural production of the different states, may be clearly ascertained from the census which has been ordered by act of congress to be taken. It would seem, that as a wheat-growing state, Ohio stands first in rank; the amount of that product which it yields being about sixteen millions of bushels. The next in importance is Pennsylvania, the annual product of which is thirteen millions. New York ranks the third, producing eleven millions; and Virginia the fourth, producing ten millions. The state of Tennessee has yielded the largest annual crop of Indian corn; the product of that state being estimated at forty-two millions; Virginia has produced thirty-four millions, Ohio thirty-three, Indiana twenty-eight, Illinois twenty-two, Alabama eighteen, Georgia seventeen, and Missouri fifteen. In the production of potatoes, New York seems to bear the palm, having yielded thirty millions nine hundred and ninety-nine thousand; next comes Maine, with a crop of ten millions; and she is followed by Pennsylvania, with eight millions of bushels. In the production of cotton, Mississippi leads the way with two hundred and eighty-nine millions of pounds; Alabama succeeds with two hundred and forty millions; Georgia follows, with one hundred and forty-eight millions; South Carolina comes afterward, with one hundred and thirty-four millions; Tennessee follows, with one hundred and twenty-eight millions; Louisiana yields eighty-seven millions; Arkansas twenty-three millions; and Virginia ten millions. In the production of sugar, it would also appear, that Louisiana has yielded the largest amount, having produced two hundred and forty-nine millions of pounds; and New York comes next, in the manufacture of that which is derived from the maple, yielding, as we are informed, from her own forests seventy millions of pounds. In the production of swine, Tennessee stands first, having two millions seven hundred and ninety-five thousand; while Ohio has furnished two millions. In the production of wool, also, New York ranks first; and that state is soon followed in successive order by Ohio, Vermont, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. In the production of tobacco, the state of Tennessee, also, appears to rank first, yielding the amount of twenty-six millions of pounds; Maryland is next, with eighteen millions; and Virginia, with fourteen millions, follows. In the production of lumber, also, New York has exceeded any other state, producing that article to the amount of \$3,788,000. This state is soon followed by Maine, the alleged valuation of whose lumber is \$1,808,000. So, also, in the products of the orchard the palm is given to New York; the value of this species of product derived from her soil being \$1,732,000. In the products of the dairy, New York is found at the head of the column, producing from this source the value of \$10,000,000; and that state is soon succeeded by Vermont, which derives from the same source the value of \$4,892,000.

We have thus entered into this long estimate, which will be found, probably, in the main accurate, for the purpose of showing, not only the actual, but the relative amount of agricultural product furnished by the different states; and it will be obvious, that the new agricultural states of the west and the southwest are leaving the less fertile, and older



states of the east, far behind in the agricultural enterprise which is now acting upon its soil.

It is indeed extraordinary, when we consider how certainly the application of science to the art of agriculture increases the amount and value of its products, and a proper attention to stock-husbandry improves the breed of cattle, that more attention is not paid to the subject in our own country. We have annual exhibitions of cattle, called fairs, in which, it must be granted, that noble specimens of this species of stock are displayed; but little has been done compared with what ought to be done, when we reflect upon the magnitude and importance of our agricultural interest. There are many farmers, both at the east and west, who, with a laudable enterprise, have imported numerous valuable specimens of farming stock; and we know that there are numerous agriculturists in the heart of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio, upon a domain which we of the east are too apt to term a wilderness, who drive from their barn-yards specimens of sheep, horses, and cattle, which would surprise the less ambitious husbandmen of many of our eastern states. But notwithstanding the too great neglect of this branch of our agricultural interest, which we denominate stock-husbandry, our advance in this respect, of late years, has been obvious and marked; and this improvement is manifest to every one who will compare the quality of our sheep and cattle with those of the same general species which formerly existed in our own country. Liberal and enterprising gentlemen, adopting the pursuit of agriculture from taste and inclination, and disposed to spread widely the benefits of improved husbandry, have imported at their own expense from abroad some of the best species of horses and cattle. As early as 1802, the first importation of merino sheep into this country was made by Colonel Humphreys, of the state of Connecticut, and Chancellor Livingston, of New York. Several companies have been also formed in the states of Ohio and Kentucky, composed of gentlemen of fortune, who have made it an important object to import from Europe the best stock, both of cattle and sheep; and the farming interest of the country is indebted to Messrs. George and Thomas Searle, of Boston, who, in 1824, imported that beautiful and valuable species of sheep, the Saxony, into the east—it having been introduced into the west seven years previously;\* and to Van Rensselaer and Corning of New York, Powell of Pennsylvania, and Cushing of Massachusetts, for similar services; the last-named gentleman having not only imported the best stock, but distributed them among the farmers of his vicinity; deriving, as the sole consideration, the conviction that he had conferred solid advantages upon the agricultural interest of the nation. There are other individuals who have performed similar services. It is by such means, and such means alone, that the country can be advanced to that perfection in agriculture which its resources for the exercise of this branch of enterprise require, and which our own condition, as a great and growing commercial community, demands.

We have said that the condition of the country demands a more direct attention of the public mind to the pursuit of agriculture; and this fact is manifest, not only from the structure of our government, which makes this pursuit better adapted to the genius of the people than any other, but because the vast tracts of our territory, in their fertility and cheapness, seem to spread out the most ample motives for its exercise. It will scarcely be

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\* See Hall's Statistics of the West, p. 148.

denied that agriculture, which, in the minds of political economists, constitutes but one great branch of human enterprise, is the foundation of all the rest; for man possesses no earthly treasure-house but that which exists in the wealth of the soil. Agriculture, while it supplies the producer with that which is required for his immediate wants, revolves the wheels of the factory, and provides freights for commerce, granting to every form of human labor both nutriment and strength.

We turn to the consideration of the more important circumstances which have heretofore impeded the prosperity of the agriculture of the United States. Throughout nearly the entire portion of New England, other interests besides the agricultural hold out superior inducements to enterprise. With the open pathway of the fruitful ocean stretched upon its coast, not only are the rewards of commerce, which have already enriched a large portion of the citizens upon the borders, held out before them, but the various forms of the whale, cod, herring, and mackerel fishing, tempt the adventurous navigators of that portion of the territory to venture out upon the watery domain of the sea in quest of the finny tribes with which they abound. Besides, the manufacturing advantages afforded by its numerous rapid streams, seem to hold out much greater inducement for the exercise of manufacturing enterprise than the cultivation of its rocky and hilly territory. It happens, accordingly, that agriculture, throughout this portion of our country, is practised only so far as it is found necessary to supply the immediate population with the ordinary articles of food—the greater portion of this section of our country deriving its wheat and other grains from the surplus that is produced in other states.

Such, however, is not the fact in the middle states. New York, Pennsylvania, and a considerable portion of the adjoining states, comprise a more alluvial soil, that is eminently favorable for the production of the common grasses, grains, and vegetables, and which not only yields a surplus of the agricultural products that are necessary for the support of its population, but produces besides in great abundance the fruits of the orchard, especially the apple and the peach—the last of which product has recently declined in the soil of New England. If we advance further south, especially in the cotton-growing states, we find that the cultivation of that staple, being more profitable in production than any other vegetable product, has, in great measure, swallowed up other species of agricultural enterprise; the grains and vegetables being produced only in that amount that is required for the subsistence of the planters and their families, and those agents who are employed in the production of this valuable staple.

It follows, as a necessary consequence, that the broad agricultural region to which we have before alluded, comprised in the western states, and extending from the northern boundaries of Iowa and Wisconsin to the Gulf of Mexico, must, from the resources of the soil, and the facilities for cultivation which it accordingly affords, ultimately constitute the great granary of the republic. In the state of Illinois, especially, comprised in great part of prairie, entirely free of undergrowth, and consisting of a deep, damp, vegetable mould, scarcely any means of artificial fertilization are required. The land, if laid open by the plough, and sowed with corn or wheat, which are buried by the next furrow made by that instrument, produces the most abundant harvests. In the state of Michigan, comprised throughout its greater part of what are denominated "oak-openings," or extensive tracts of undulating land, sparsely wooded with tall forest trees,

which, however, are usually girdled when the ground is fenced, the land requires only to be ploughed in order to the production of abundant crops of corn or wheat. The same mode of culture is also practised in the states of Ohio and Indiana, Kentucky and Tennessee, as well as the remainder of the territory lying further down upon the shores of the Mississippi—yielding an average crop of about sixty bushels of corn to the acre. The prairies, forests, and bottom-lands of that region of the country, yield abundantly the common native grasses, when cultivated; and even in their natural state, produce good pasturage for the horses and cattle which are permitted to roam at large through its forests, and along the meadows and marshes of its inland streams, and lake and river coasts. It may not, perhaps, be generally known that, throughout the greater portion of the west, the tobacco plant thrives luxuriantly—especially along the shores of the lakes—and now forms a prominent staple of Kentucky; and that, besides the large quantities of wheat, rye, barley, buckwheat, oats, hemp, flax, turnips, and Irish potatoes, that are produced in this region, the whiskey, pork, lard, bacon, beef, cattle, horses, butter, cheese, and apples, which constitute its prominent staple for export, the farmers of Illinois, Missouri, the southern part of Indiana, and Kentucky, raise their cotton for home consumption; and, like the early settlers of New England and Virginia, produce all they can use, and that many of their families are clad in cotton fabrics which are manufactured at home.\*

But few reasons exist in the new states of the west for the exercise of those improved modes of tillage that prevail in the thickly settled lands of England, which, at the present time, exceeds every other nation in the perfection to which it has carried all forms of its husbandry. The regular rotation of crops, the application of animal and vegetable composts to the soil, as well as all the aids granted to vegetation by the recent improvements in agricultural chemistry, are, of course, more requisite in a country like that of England, where the territory is limited, and the density of the population causes the necessity of making large drafts upon its agricultural resources, in order to the support of its population. These circumstances, however, do not exist at the west; for the land produces almost spontaneously, and no artificial means are required for its production. Besides, it is the natural desire of the emigrants who advance into that territory to enclose as large fields as is possible, in order that a wider surface may be laid open to cultivation, rather than to apply new and improved forms of tillage to smaller tracts. It follows, in consequence, that nature is here required to do what, in a more worn and older country, can only be done by laborious art.

In order more fully to understand the importance of the western agricultural production to the general trade and commerce of the country, and its growing consequence, we need only to look abroad upon the extent of the territory and its resources, as well as its existing production. The old northwestern territory, now comprised in the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Iowa—with the exception of that portion of the two latter states which is covered by Indian titles—now contains about 178,616,672 acres of land; the most of it fertile, and capable of producing bountiful harvests of the common grasses and grains. Its population, now probably exceeding three millions, are, in their essential

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\* See Hall's Statistics of the West.



character, an agricultural people, who have already laid open extensive tracts to the plough, and are daily making further advances into the forest. A considerable portion of the grain produced in that portion of the country is, it is well known, shipped from the several ports of these states and territories, and transported through the lakes in schooners or steamboats to Buffalo, from which point it is carried in boats through the Erie canal to the Hudson, where it is re-shipped in steamboats or vessels and conveyed to New York; with the exception of that portion which is made into flour, either in the states where the grain is produced, or on its passage through western New York, when it is conveyed in that form in barrels through the same channels. For the purpose of showing the amount of this species of agricultural production, we subjoin a table, showing the returns of the grain crop in 1839 in that part of the country, which we have derived from a memorial presented to congress in February, 1841, "praying the adoption of measures to secure an equitable and adequate market for American wheat," which is probably accurate, as it appears to have been compiled with care.

*The returns of the grain crop of 1839, showing the whole product of wheat, of Indian corn, and of all other kinds of grain, in the six northwestern states, with the proportion to each inhabitant; with the quantity in the United States, excepting North Carolina and Kentucky.*

STATES.	Wheat.	To each inhabitant.	Indian corn.	To each inhabitant.	Other grain.	To each inhabitant.	Total to each inhabitant.
	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>
Ohio,.....	16,292,951	10.7	33,954,162	22.4	15,684,492	10.3	43.4
Indiana,.....	4,154,256	6	28,008,051	40.9	6,078,229	8.8	55.7
Illinois,.....	2,740,380	5.6	22,116,627	45.4	4,806,878	9.8	60.8
Michigan,.....	1,899,283	9	2,215,787	10.5	.....	.....	.....
Wisconsin,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Iowa,.....	154,737	3.6	1,326,241	30.9	227,118	5.2	39.7
Total,.....	25,241,607	8.6	87,620,868	30.02	.....	.....	.....
United States,*....	75,995,787	5	301,947,658	20	.....	.....	.....

With the advance of emigration into the states bordering the great lakes, and the increase of agricultural production, which has been the necessary consequence, has increased the commercial trade upon those inland seas. In order to exhibit the measure of that advance, we append an additional table, showing the increase of the commerce of the northwestern waters for four years, commencing with the year 1836; together with other items connected with its trade, which are of interest to those who are fond of watching the growing resources of our territory. For this table we are also indebted to the same document which we have before mentioned, as well as for that showing the staple articles of the west arriving at Buffalo, and passing eastward by the Erie Canal, for a period of twelve years, extending down to the year 1840.

\* Except North Carolina and Kentucky.

*Miscellaneous items, illustrating the increase of trade in the northwest, from the year 1836 to 1841.*

		1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Lake Erie, steamboats on,	No.	45	50	52	61	.....
" " "	tons	9,017	10,509	17,429	17,324	.....
" sailing vessels,	No.	211	230	234	225	300
" " "	tons	15,030	16,934	16,840	17,799	30,000
" total tonnage,	tons	24,047	27,443	34,277	35,123	.....
Welland Canal—						
Wheat passing on,	bushels	.....	208,242	414,919	864,846	.....
Flour passing on,	barrels	.....	6,869	49,082	66,875	.....
Income,	lbs.	.....	6,461	3,123	5,706	20,341
Erie Canal—						
Wheat and flour forwarded at Buffalo,	tons	24,154	27,206	57,947	60,082	107,557
Wheat and flour arrived at Hudson river,	tons	124,982	116,491	133,080	124,883	218,759
Tolls on wheat and flour,	dollars	.....	301,739	380,161	404,525	.....
Per cent of whole tolls,		.....	27	27	.....	.....
Wheat forwarded at Buffalo,	bushels	.....	450,350	.....	.....	1,467,904
Flour forwarded at Buffalo,	barrels	.....	126,808	.....	.....	647,970
Wheat arrived at Hudson river—	bushels	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,395,195
Flour arrived at Hudson river—	barrels	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,805,135
Michigan—						
Flour shipped from Detroit,	barrels	.....	.....	.....	.....	76,896
Flour shipped from Toledo,	barrels	.....	.....	.....	.....	67,000
Flour shipped from ports on Lake Michigan,	barrels	.....	.....	.....	.....	53,000
Flour on hand for spring shipments—	barrels	.....	.....	.....	.....	200,000

*Staple articles arriving at Buffalo, and passing east, by the Erie Canal, in the years named.*

Years.	Flour and wheat.	Pork and beef.	Tobacco.	Butter and lard.	Ashes.	Cheese.	Tolls.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	
1829	577	4,754	32	70	1,705	.....	.....
1830	12,384	6,675	62	174	2,713	.....	.....
1831	3,425	5,668	222	205	2,502	.....	.....
1832	5,391	5,159	386	394	2,110	.....	.....
1833	11,926	4,273	532	449	2,118	.....	.....
1834	12,421	14,590	1,009	119	1,655	.....	.....
1835	15,935	8,160	1,765	503	1,694	.....	.....
1836	27,159	7,385	1,877	626	1,752	.....	.....
1837	27,205	24,414	608	550	2,080	39	\$128,581
1838	57,979	16,121	.....	741	2,224	51	202,890
1839	57,766	24,633	.....	538	2,992	93	214,183
1840	90,456	25,462	.....	1,415	2,432	481	321,417

The commerce of the northwest, great in amount as it now is, and rapidly increasing, absorbs comparatively a small portion of the agricultural production of the entire west. The numerous states bordering the Mississippi, and which possess free channels of navigation to that river, pour a great proportion of their products down through this channel to the city of New Orleans, whence they are either shipped to the various por-

tions of the country, or are transported abroad. Ohio, Kentucky, a portion of Illinois, Indiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Missouri, Alabama, and Louisiana, find an outlet for their products elsewhere than through the lakes—the Mississippi river itself furnishing a cheap track of transportation. The cotton of Alabama and Tennessee, Missouri and Illinois, Arkansas, Florida, and Texas, has long found a place of shipment in the port of New Orleans; and the tobacco and sugar of that part of the country uniformly seeks the same port by that channel, in the numerous steamboats and flatboats that are constantly plying upon its waters. But not only do the agricultural products of this part of the west supply the commerce of that river. Large packages of buffalo robes and other peltry, besides furs to a great amount and value, collected by the companies of traders who scour the plains which sweep along the base of the Rocky mountains, and penetrate the deserts bordering the streams which flow into the Pacific, making St. Louis one of the principal points of their deposit, are yearly shipped from this port to New Orleans, where they are either transported to New York or conveyed to foreign ports.

It may be naturally asked, what markets are provided for this enormous amount of agricultural product, and where will be the chances of its sale when, as population advances into the yet uncultivated tracts of this wide region, that amount shall have become quadrupled?—and it must be admitted that the question is not easily answered. Even now, it is well known, that those products have become much diminished in value, in consequence of the quantity already produced; and from this cause, as well as the general derangement of the currency, agricultural productions to the value of millions of dollars are locked up in western granaries, awaiting a more auspicious period for the markets. Owing to restrictions imposed upon these products in certain foreign ports, especially by the corn laws of Great Britain, the producer of wheat is, in great measure, cut off from the ports of the latter country, and doubtless will be in future time, so long as that burdensome system, which now weighs down the real prosperity of that great nation, shall be continued.

In order properly to understand that system, it will be necessary only to glance at its more prominent features. The corn law of Great Britain, as established in 1828 by the act of 9 George IV., is one of those ingenious contrivances by which selfish men strive to fix and perpetuate their own power. Its sole object is to secure for that country the production of grain, by fixing upon its importation from other countries such a duty as in effect to exclude it from her own ports. The necessary consequence of this prohibition is, to keep up the value of the agricultural lands of that empire, which are almost uniformly in the hands of great landed proprietors, and to press down the grain-growing interests of foreign countries, which are thus excluded from her markets; and when, as sometimes happens, a scarcity prevails, the condition of the poorer classes of that country, certainly, is a subject of commiseration. Without entering into a particular examination of the structure of that law, it may be remarked, that while the immense load of the public debt of that country, imposing heavy taxes upon the lands required by its agriculture, causes it to be made a great national object to secure their cultivation by excluding foreign agricultural products, and by thus obtaining a high price to those which are produced in that empire; its influence upon those classes not favored by fortune, when a scanty crop occurs, is injurious in the extreme;



and we rejoice that the policy of those laws is now in a course of investigation by the two powerful parties which divide that country. That their influence is of very great injury to the agricultural producer of our own country, there can be no doubt. Thousands of cargoes of the manufactured products of the British empire are now consumed yearly in our own country: and without the passage of retaliatory and countervailing laws, it would seem to be an act of mere justice that a reciprocal policy should be established between the two nations, by which we may be permitted to exchange for the products of her looms and workshops, a larger portion of our agricultural staples.

There is but little doubt, that, should these laws be amended, the export of wheat to that and the adjacent countries would yield as great a profit to the producer in our new states, as is furnished to the south by the cultivation of cotton. In order to show the value which the export of the former staple, in the form of flour, has reached, notwithstanding all the disadvantages springing from that system, we subjoin a statement of the average amount and value of the wheat and flour that have been exported abroad from this country, from 1800 to 1840, in periods of five years.

*Average annual exports of wheat and flour from the United States to foreign countries, in each five years of the present century, with the total in barrels of flour, and the value in dollars.*

Years.	Wheat—bushels.	Flour—barrels.	Total, in barrels.	Value.
1800-4	272,100	1,006,721	1,061,171	\$8,205,000
1805-9	272,571	784,032	838,537	6,765,000
1810-14	177,025	1,028,228	1,063,633	10,104,000
1815-19	91,047	995,869	1,014,078	10,193,750
1820-24	15,404	962,903	965,984	5,093,988
1825-29	19,650	846,681	851,610	4,581,882
1830-34	122,354	1,118,000	1,142,471	5,442,118
1835-39	33,950	594,915	601,765	4,586,570
1839	96,325	923,151	942,416	7,079,361
1840	807,743	1,838,538	1,855,086	10,985,644

But even supposing that the system of the corn laws should continue, and our agricultural products are to be henceforward excluded from British markets, our producers of such crops need not despair; for there are resources in the soil which, if they cannot be made to minister at present to a degree of luxury and refinement, by their exchange with other articles from abroad, will always yield to the farmer safe and solid returns. Besides, the capacity of our soil for production has not been fully tested. Ages may be required to show clearly what are the best and most valuable subjects of cultivation, as new markets shall be opened abroad. The rapid augmentation of our population, both from foreign immigration and domestic increase, will hereafter furnish a large and increasing consumption to our vegetable products. Doubtless new subjects of cultivation will be introduced, like that of the beet sugar, which has, it is well known, been recently brought here from France, and that of the silk, which is even now manufactured to a considerable extent in different parts of the country. The annual fluctuations of foreign markets, and the changes which

are constantly going on in the political and physical condition of the states of Europe, will always secure to us ample returns for agricultural labor; and the scanty markets of one year may be more than counterbalanced by the abundant sales of the next. We can all, perhaps, remember the period when, in the interior of the western states, especially those of Ohio and Michigan, the farmers produced a vast amount of surplus, which, cut off from foreign markets, lay heaped up in their granaries, and might have been purchased at a very inconsiderable price. But that state of things did not long exist. As soon as channels for the export of these products, and canals, railroads, and navigation by steam, had furnished cheap avenues for their exportation from the interior to the frontier, and thence through the lakes and waters of the west, or the Mississippi, they soon poured down through these channels, and found productive markets in the eastern states; and now that these markets are annually supplied, it is reasonable to hope that the same fortunate circumstances may happen abroad, which will thus enhance the value of our agricultural products.

In the absence of a market for the grains and other more substantial products of agriculture, the attention of husbandmen might doubtless be directed with advantage to the cultivation of the fruits of the orchard and the garden. There is scarcely a state in the Union in which this species of agriculture might not be introduced with very great advantage; and by due attention to the principles which govern this species of culture, it might be much improved in value and amount. Those who have visited the old French plantations which are scattered along the line of the north-western lakes, cannot fail to have remarked the groves of tall and decayed pear-trees, which form one of the prominent features of those enclosures, and will find that they were planted by the original French settlers, who constituted the earliest emigrants to that portion of the country. The soil of the republic, in its greater portion, is also favorable to the cultivation of the most valuable species of fruits. Extensive orchards of peaches and apples, receiving but little care from their proprietors, it is well known, flourish luxuriantly in the northern and the middle states; and even the orange is produced, and may be increased abundantly, in the territory of Florida. Besides the common garden fruits known at the east, the wild strawberry blushes everywhere among the woodlands and prairies of the west; and the wild raspberry and cherry, the plumb, the crab-apple, the gooseberry and persimmon, and the blackberry, grow spontaneously in that part of our territory. The grape flourishes luxuriantly among its forests, tangling its clustering vines around the branches of the forest trees. Indeed, the culture of the fruit which we last named, has arrived to great perfection throughout its larger portion. In the state of Illinois twenty-seven barrels of wine were made from this fruit by a single individual, from the grapes that were gathered without much difficulty in his single neighborhood; and it has been stated from credible sources,—we believe, indeed, that Dr. Holmes, in his *Annals*, alludes to the fact of its production,—that the original French colonists of that territory made from the native grape a species of wine resembling claret, that was of so good a quality that the merchants of Bordeaux succeeded in procuring an edict to be passed for the purpose of preventing its exportation. Whether, however, this is or is not the fact, it is clearly established that wine not only may be, but has been, made in that quarter to a considerable amount,

and of a superior quality. Let the attention of horticulturists be directed to these facts, and we doubt not that new and valuable improvements may be effected in this department of agricultural enterprise.

We have thus traced rapidly, and we fear imperfectly, the prominent features of the agricultural commerce of the United States; and we may easily perceive the motives that are held out for its vigorous prosecution, by the extent and fertility of our wide-spread country. We need only to look at the actual condition of our carrying-trade to be convinced how great a share is borne by the cultivation of the soil in furnishing freights for the fleets of vessels, both at the east and west, which are continually spreading their sails for the various parts of the earth. Let us look at the proportion which the single staple of the south—that of cotton—bears to the aggregate of the commerce of the country, without considering the tobacco, the sugar, the rice, and the wheat, which themselves constitute no inconsiderable items of our foreign and domestic trade. We may, indeed, form some estimate of its importance when we learn, that on an average of ten years, from 1821 to 1830, the products of agriculture formed three quarters of the total exports of the country. How many mills, and factories, and men, does agriculture keep in motion! What an amount of employment does it furnish to the various forms of labor—the producer, the manufacturer, and the various trades, from the first reaping of the harvest to the last place of sale, the market and the shop! How large a portion of active occupation does it afford to mercantile energy in its various forms, from the transportation from the ship to the storehouse, constantly shifting as its products are from place to place, in order to suit the various phases of mercantile enterprise. It would be safe to allege, that without it that great sea of commerce, which is forever dashing and rolling from shore to shore, according to the various circumstances which change the political or physical condition of men, would forever stagnate.

But in its influence upon larger and more general interests, we think that it should be fostered as a national enterprise. If, as has been remarked by a distinguished statesman, cities are the sores of the political body, where the bad matter of the state is concentrated, what healthful habitudes of mind and body are afforded by agricultural enterprise! The exhilarating atmosphere of a rural life, the invigorating exercise afforded by its various occupations, the pure water, the abundance of the necessities of subsistence, leading to early and virtuous marriages, all point to this pursuit as best adapted to the comfort of the individual man. Its beneficial bearing upon the state is no less obvious. The agriculturist, removed from the pernicious influences that are forever accumulated in large cities, the exciting scenes, which always arise from accumulations of large bodies of men, passes a quiet and undisturbed life, possessing ample means and motives thoroughly to reflect upon his rights and duties, and holding a sufficient stake in the soil to induce him to perform those duties both for himself and his country. It is to the true-hearted and independent yeoman of a nation that we look, in times of national danger, to uphold its institutions, and to protect themselves in preserving the principles of the state. It is to them that we refer for the support of sound legislation, and from their ranks that we derive the best soldiers when the horrors of war overspread a land. While other branches of human enterprise are protected in their due measure, it can scarcely be denied that agricultural



enterprise, the basis of almost every form of human pursuit, should be encouraged as the safeguard of a country, the promoter of its virtue, and the solid foundation of its permanent happiness and most lasting independence.

## ART. II.—THE COMMERCE OF BRITISH INDIA,

VIEWED IN ITS PROBABLE INFLUENCE ON THE PRODUCTS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES.

THE present condition of the commerce of Great Britain with the East India Company's possessions, and its probable influence on the products of our southern states, is a subject at this time of the most serious and interesting character; and to all who are connected with the great staples of cotton, rice, and sugar, should be one of diligent and careful investigation. It is clear, from the great increase in the amount of East India imports within the last ten years, that they have begun to exercise an important influence on the prices of these articles in the English markets; and if they continue increasing in the same ratio, in a very few years our commerce with Great Britain must be materially affected. Since the year 1836, (when the duties on East and West India sugar were equalized) the importation of sugar from British India has almost doubled, and it is the same with the articles of coffee and cotton. Rice is also another article of increasing consumption and of improving quality, and in England is now seen for sale in the grocer's window, with that from Carolina—the former at 3*d.*, the latter at 5*d.* a pound. As to tobacco, the present amount of importation from India is small; arising no doubt from the want of proper management in the preparation for the home market, and skill and knowledge in the cultivators.

The two subjects connected with India, which now engross the attention of the people of Britain, are of a double character and opposite points. India wants from England justice and righteous protection, and a fair acknowledgment of her claims, as an integral part of the British empire. England wants from India raw materials for her manufactories, and the luxuries of coffee, sugar, and tobacco, for her artisans and laborers; and most of all, she wants an extensive market for her numerous wares and fabrics, which she can produce cheaper than any other country. These two different points of one great national question, have now become the subjects of discussion by the philanthropists on the one side, and the merchants and manufacturers on the other. Both are working for the attainment of their separate objects, at different ends of the same chain. The one will civilize India by justice and religion—the other by unfettered commerce and an improved agriculture. Who would dare say that these are things which the southern people should pass by carelessly and heedlessly, and not prepare to meet the coming change?

British India comprises a tract of country almost as large as the entire settled parts of the United States, and extensive enough to supply the *whole* of the *present demand* in England, for cotton, rice, sugar, coffee, and tobacco. A glance at the situation of the company's territory, is suf-

ficient to convince any one that these are no vague assertions; and that causes, many of which have ceased to operate, are the reasons of the small proportion of East Indian articles, which have been able to compete with the same materials from our slave states, in the English market; and not from the want of a capacity of production in the soil of India, or from the quantity of land, or the price and amount of labor.

Montgomery Martin says, in his history of the British colonies—"The British possessions in India are rich to overflowing with every product of vegetable life, which an all-wise and ever beneficent Providence could bestow, to gratify the sight, and contribute to the happiness of his creatures." Professor Royle, of King's College, says—"In the peninsula of India and in the neighboring island of Ceylon we have a climate capable of producing cinnamon, cassia, pepper, &c. The coffee grown on the Malabar coast is of so superior a quality, as to be taken to Arabia and re-exported as Mocha coffee. The Tinnevely senna brings the highest price in the London market. The common potato has been introduced into almost every part of India with great success, and benefit to the people. The continent everywhere produces indigo, cotton, tobacco, sugar, and opium. The first, hardly of any note as an Indian product thirty years ago, is now imported in the largest quantities into England; the cotton is *indigenous* to India; many provinces seem peculiarly adapted for its culture, particularly Malwa, and those to the northwest. The tobacco brought home by Dr. Wallach was pronounced by competent judges to be equal to the best from America. The quantity grown in India is enormous; every class, high and low use it, and if the duty on it were reduced in England, the different soils of India would afford an infinite variety of that fascinating weed for the British market. Very rich lands produce about 160 lbs. per acre of green leaf; excellent Havana tobacco is grown in Guzerat, Boglinoor, Bundelcund, &c.; and some from the Irawaddy territories has been reported by the brokers in London, as equal to the best American. The want of proper skill in the preparation has been a great obstacle to its arriving in a marketable state in England, after a long East India voyage; but experiments are now making in Bombay in the improvement of the curing process.

The London Journal of Commerce of January 30th, 1841, says, in speaking of this article,—“There is now a difference of 3*d.* per lb.; the duty on the American being 3*s.*, and on the Indian 2*s.* 9*d.* The quantity of tobacco imported from India is now small; of 22,000,000 lbs. cleared for home consumption, but 45,000 lbs. are from India. In the opinion of parties conversant with the trade, Messrs. Grant and Hodgson of Crutched Friars for instance, the reduction of the additional duty would cause an immediate consumption of East India tobacco. They are of opinion that, if due care were taken, tobacco might be grown in India, of a quality and to an extent that would supersede the Columbian tobacco and second rate Havana, of which sorts the number of pounds cleared per month averages 36,000. Indeed, there is no limit to the extent to which tobacco might be cultivated in India. At present Indian tobacco is not so suitable to European taste as that of Cuba or Manilla, but tobacco has been raised from Maryland and Virginian seed, which was quite as good as the produce of those countries. The inferiority of Indian tobacco is ascribed to the species cultivated, which is grown to suit the native taste. The reduction of the differential duty of 3*d.* per lb., which would be a good profit,

would doubtless lead to a cultivation suited to the home market. At present the duty is, in reality, higher on East India than on Virginian tobacco, for although nominally it is equal in amount, the inferiority of the former to the latter, operates as a protective duty in favor of the American growth."

"The sugar-cane is cultivated in every part of India," continues Royle, "but the quality has hitherto been poor: lately, however, a manufactory has been established in Burdiwan; a new mine opened in the Burdiwan coal formation, and very superior specimens of sugar sent home." "Sugar," Martin states, "may be cultivated in India in sufficient quantities to supply the whole world; its production at present is immense, as it forms an ingredient in almost every article of food or drink used by the Hindoos; and where the manufacture is attended to, the grain is as large and as handsome as that from Demerara.\* The soil and climate of the three presidencies are peculiarly suited to the production of this essential nourishment to man. The small quantity of sugar which British India now (1834) sends to England, notwithstanding that in the former country (India) it is exceeded only by *rice* in consumption, is 76,613 cwts. "If," says a writer in the *Wexford Independent*, "we do thorough justice to India, we could draw from these vast and favored regions, the product of free cultivation—with the blessing and full requital of the Indian laborer—more than *twice* the consumption of *all* the sugar we *import*, and more than all the cotton sent to us from the slave states of North America." "The valley of the Ganges," says Secretary Trevellyan, "is a tract of alluvial country, of extraordinary fertility, about 1000 miles long, and from 150 to 300 miles broad, and is capable of producing sufficient sugar for the consumption of the whole world." This valley is densely populated, "and might be given up entirely to the growth of sugar, indigo, tobacco, cotton, and other valuable productions, getting its grain and provisions from the neighboring provinces." A late number (Nov. 1840) of the *Calcutta "Friend of India"* states "that the cultivation of sugar has extended amazingly since the duties were equalized in 1836; sugar meets the eye everywhere in Calcutta, and were it not for the scarcity of shipping (which is now employed in transporting soldiers to China) we should be able to send double the quantity sent last year to England." Another paper remarks, "the exports of the year (1840) will probably reach 54,000 tons," and that "the public mind, both native and European, continues to be strongly attracted towards the cultivation and manufacture of sugar." The Gladstones of Liverpool have lately sold their property in Demerara and bought large quantities of land in India for the cultivation of sugar and cotton. "I have no doubt," said Zachary Macauley, "that sugar could be produced in India profitably at a penny a pound." "I have received (the venerable Clarkson remarks) information lately (1841) from India of the *new and extensive* cultivation going on there, of sugar, cotton, &c."

But to come to figures. We learn from the customhouse returns, that in 1831 the exports of sugar from India to England were about 60,000 cwts.; in 1836, 152,163 cwts.; in 1839, 519,126 cwts.; and in 1840,

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\* The Demerara sugar is of a light brown, silky appearance, and is considered the most saleable article in the English market.



nearly 600,000 cwts.\* In the Gazette prices, towards the end of the first quarter of 1841, we find that the increased quantity of Indian sugar in the London market, brought the price down 10s. on the cwt. In the year 1834, the price was 61s. to 66s., and in 1840, 56s. to 87s., some qualities selling as high as the *best* West India. In 1835, there were 35,000 boxes and bags imported into Liverpool, and in 1839, 92,000 of the same packages.

The next and most important article, and one that enters more into competition with our slave-produce than any other, is cotton; and here we come to a question of most serious and grave import. Shall we or shall we not be able to compete with India in the production of this valuable staple, when she receives from England her full measure of justice and good government? That the people of that country are disposed to bestow them upon her is evidenced by the interest taken in the subject, in and out of parliament this year, and even by the members of the government itself.

That we have some real grounds for asserting that India is able to compete with us in the cultivation of cotton, and that of all qualities, the writer of this has endeavored to show by a few substantial facts of recent date. It is time for the planters of the south seriously to set about the investigation of the subject; and to ask themselves, whether slave-labor, at thirty-one cents a day, (three negroes doing the work of one freeman—a well-known fact in slave countries,) with all its concomitant evils and vexations, is equal to free labor in the East Indies at twelve cents a day; a large supply of labor, and any quantity of unoccupied land for the purpose; and with a government and wealthy company ready to second them, having only one great impediment in the way—the greater distance of transportation. The people of the United States are alike interested in this subject, and it should by all be one of common interest.

As to capability of production, Montgomery Martin says, "cotton everywhere abounds, but sufficient care has not been bestowed on the growth, so as to render it, as in America, a triennial instead of an annual; or in the picking and cleaning of it for export. The Decca cotton is unequalled; and the 'sea island cotton,' from Saugur island, near Calcutta, promises to be a valuable article of export." And in another place, he says, "the Indian government have, of late years, made several attempts for the extensive introduction of the cotton plant into Guzerat, near the Persian Gulf, *which seems well adapted for the culture.*" Royle says, "the best of cotton is procured from the coast of Coromandel." "The natural internal navigation," states another writer, in 1839, "is most extensive. There are vast tracts of land so near the Hooghly, Ganges, and other large navigable rivers, that without the delay of making roads, the produce can be brought to Calcutta at the moderate cost of transportation, of from five to ten shillings a ton. The presidencies of Madras and Bombay likewise contain land capable of growing cotton to an *illimitable* extent." "You consume," said Gladstone, in parliament, in 1838, "318 millions of pounds of cotton, which proceed from slave labor, and only 45 millions of pounds which proceed from free labor; and that too, while you have the means in India, *at a very little expense*, of obtaining all you require from free labor." "Under a juster government," says a writer of 1840, "we

\* It is said, by late advices, that the export of 1841 will be over 1,800,000 cwts.—62,000 tons.

might make ourselves independent of the great product of the United States; and low as the price of Upland cotton now is, (6d.) we might bring it down to 3d. a pound." "It is not attempted to be denied," says F. C. Brown, of Tellichery, (E. I.) in 1838, "that the natives of India can produce sugar, cotton, tobacco, and coffee, in the proportion of millions to hundreds. It is admitted that they ask no more *than to be suffered* to produce these commodities; had they been so suffered fifty years ago, it is demonstrably certain, that not a negro slave would now exist, either in the West Indies or America; for he could not be profitable to his master, competing with the Indian laborer at 3d. a day." Clarkson says, in a late pamphlet of his, that he has "received information recently from India, that individuals are hiring large tracts of land of the East India Company, principally for the cultivation of cotton. One person has taken 60,000 acres at his own risk, and expects to employ 100,000 people *more* than at present." We are all aware, too, that the East India Company have latterly taken much pains to procure the best seeds from America. "Cotton is as fine in Rajapotanah as anywhere in India," says a late writer (1841;) and again, "another part of the same province (Mewar) produces all kinds of grain, cotton, sugar, &c." Rangoon, at the mouth of the great river Irawaddy, "ships large quantities of raw cotton, of superior quality, to Calcutta, and other places, which is used in the fabrication of the finest muslins." This part of India is very similar in climate and situation to the Delta of our Mississippi; and could supply an immense quantity of cotton of the best quality for the English market. A Bombay newspaper of 1839, remarks: "We have shown, in a former number, that until the year 1830, we derived no agricultural produce *whatever* from the fertile plains of Berar (600 miles from the coast;) and supplied that district with but a single article, salt, which, owing to the almost impracticable state of the roads, was conveyed from this city on the backs of bullocks. In that year, one of the native salt merchants tried the experiment of conveying back to Bombay, upon his returning bullocks, some of the cotton which abounds in that country; the experiment was completely successful, and next year 10,000 loads were received from that one district by the same rude conveyance. In 1836, 90,000 loads were received from the same province; "but," the paper remarks, "the roads were so bad, that it imposes an additional cost of 80 per cent upon its original price. The government, however, have at length taken up the subject, and directed surveys to be made for building the road, to cost £30,000." They have also resolved to make a road from Bombay to Agra, into the very heart of the cotton district. According to the Bombay Times of March 27, 1841, up to the 19th of March, 1840, the total imports amounted to only 69,522 cwt., while to the same date of the present year they amount to 324,679 cwt.; thus exhibiting an increase of 255,157 cwt. This large increase does not appear to be owing to any fortuitous circumstance, but either to the cultivation being greatly extended, or to greater exertions being used to bring forward the new crop. From all accounts, it appears that greater extension is given to the cultivation of cotton in districts which heretofore supplied comparatively insignificant quantities, and greater attention paid to the quality.

The Manchester Chamber of Commerce, in connection with the East India Company, having directed their attention particularly to this staple, expressed their conviction, that large supplies of cotton could be procured

from British India at a moderate cost, if the cultivation and preparation were better attended to. Accordingly, the company sent out an intelligent and capable individual to the United States; and in the fall of 1840, he returned to England, accompanied by several Americans well acquainted with the cultivation; and bringing with them several cotton gins, and the best kinds of seeds. The gins were set up in Liverpool, and several parcels of Indian cotton (in the seed) submitted to the working of the new machinery, and declared increased in price, from the operation, one fourth to three eighths of a penny on a pound. The result was, that while the American gins could clean 1400 pounds a day, to the great improvement of the raw material, an Indian machine, (a churka,) with three laborers to work it, could only turn off 40 pounds. Let it be remembered, that with all this extra labor in India, they send cotton to England at the low price of from six to thirteen cents a pound, and after paying the costs of an expensive transportation. By a late Indian mail we learn, that these individuals had arrived, and applied for 1000 acres of land, in the Tinnevely district, to make a commencement.

But as we came to figures in our sugar statement, we will now give a similar view respecting cotton. Secretary Woodbury says, "that the production of cotton, in India, in 1791, was 150 millions, and in 1834, 185 millions of pounds." India furnishes cotton sufficient for her own consumption, the supply of China, and a large surplus goes to England, we learn from the same report to congress. In 1831, the imports of Indian cotton into England were 75,627 bales; in 1835, 116,153 bales; and in 1840, we have 216,784 bales—nearly trebled in nine years. The importation in 1839, was 47,233,959 pounds, and in 1840, 76,703,295 pounds; an increase without a parallel in the history of this valuable commodity. In the first quarter of 1840, the imports were 28,611 bales; and in the same term of 1841, we find 35,433; an increase of 7,822 bales. I think we have good reason to believe, that the similarity in quality of the Brazilian and East India cottons, has had the effect of manufacturers preferring the latter for rough work, on account of the lower price; and very much diminishing the demand for the former. We find in "Myers' Liverpool Mercantile Gazette," (excellent authority,) that the imports of Brazilian cotton of all kinds into Great Britain, have been lessening for the last nine years. In 1831, the importation was 174,508 bales; in 1835, 157,316; in 1838, 164,074; in 1839, 124,887; and in 1840, we find it reduced to 103,414; a decrease of 71,094 bales in nine years. This looks very much like the inability of its standing the competition much longer. The Indian article is also able to compete in price with many qualities of American cotton.

The next article in which we are immediately concerned, is rice; and here we shall find that the East Indies allow South Carolina no monopoly; and notwithstanding that we excel them in quality in the European market, they are undermining us in price, and also improving its character by machinery and better cultivation. Were it not for the immense consumption of this grain in the east, ours could not exist a single year in the European markets; and did they not use their best rice there, which is fully equal to the Carolina, (says Royle and other writers,) we should stand but a poor chance now.

The valleys of the Ganges, Irawaddy, and other large rivers of India, have been, from time immemorial, the great rice fields of the central parts



of Asia. The rice, so extensively cultivated in India, depends upon rain, or irrigation *from tanks* or rivers. These Captain Hall describes, near Nundydroog, as "spread over a valley which is from six to eight miles across; and that they were used for irrigating *myriads* of rice fields. The embankments are sometimes miles in length. One valley was pointed out to him, about a mile broad and forty miles in length, which included between thirty and forty tanks; every intermediate square yard of the intermediate spaces being richly cultivated." Dr. Roxburgh states, "that he never saw or heard of an Indian farmer manuring, in the smallest degree, a rice field; yet *these fields* have probably, for thousands of years, continued to yield annually a large crop of rice, on an average of thirty to sixty fold; even eighty or a hundred has been known." From these short notices, which could be multiplied were it necessary from many authors, we learn that India is as capable of competing with us in the cultivation of rice, as she is with that of cotton. Very lately the improved rice machines of Ewbank and Lucas, and Shiel, have come into use in the east.

The countries which compete with us in the European markets, are Bengal and Java. In the British West Indies, where it is getting to be of great consumption, the rice from Venezuela and New Granada, with that from the East Indies, is gradually supplanting ours. It is a common thing to see, in the Jamaica papers, advertisements of "bags of Calcutta and Santa Martha rice;" and in the summer of 1840, an enterprising mercantile firm of Kingston in that island, imported a *ship's cargo* of rice from the East Indies—a distance of nearly 10,000 miles! In 1838, Calcutta alone exported to Mauritius and Bourbon 926,364 bags of 164 lbs. each—equal to 151,923,696 lbs.; which, valued at three cents (1½d.) a pound, would make it worth 4,557,710 dollars, more than double the value of rice we export annually—over 2,000,000 dollars. In 1835, 66,000 bags of cleaned East India were imported into Liverpool, and only 450 casks Carolina. In 1839, 97,000 of East India, and none of Carolina. This, however, was owing to the importation in that year of the rough rice (169,000 bushels) which is now dressed in England. In the year 1840, Liverpool imported 130,000 bushels of paddy from America, and 77,800 bags of cleaned rice from India; showing a decrease on both kinds for that year. In 1837, some qualities of the Indian article sold at 18s., when Carolina was selling at 20s. a cwt.; and in 1841, the price of Patna (on the Ganges) cleaned, averaged 20s. 6d.

Coffee is also another article which is annually increasing in amount of importation and value. It is produced in almost every part of India; and within the last ten years, the beautiful island of Ceylon has been nearly turned into one entire coffee field. The quality of Ceylon coffee has greatly improved lately, and we now find it one of the most saleable varieties in the English market. In 1834 nearly three millions of pounds were sent to England; and in 1840, a Ceylon paper states, "the plantations are in a very thriving condition; waste lands are purchased with great avidity, and the next crop is expected to be a very abundant one." The export from British India to England, in 1834, (exclusive of Ceylon,) was over seven millions of pounds; and in 1840 the gross importations from the same sources (in and out of bond) more than fifteen millions of pounds. In Myers' Mercantile Gazette, of 5th April, 1841, we find "that in the first quarter of this year there had been received into England 63,437 bags and bales, and 1173 casks and tierces, exclusive of

17,132 bags of foreign East India coffee." There is no doubt, when the duty is reduced as is now contemplated, that the coffee from the East will keep the Brazil and other low kinds out of the market, and that it will continue to improve in its quality, as the demand for it will become more general.

In looking over the government tables, and the price current gazettes, we find, that since the throwing open of the East India trade in 1830, there has been a surprising increase in the importations of all the articles from that quarter of the globe—viz, indigo, jute, (coarse hemp,) hides, horns, raw silk, flax-seed, gums, *wheat flour*, ginger, castor oil of the finest quality, (an article which we also manufacture largely in Virginia,) saltpetre, rapeseed, black pepper, wool, and numerous other articles of great consumption, not only in Europe, but also in our own country. The Journal of Commerce of May 25th, 1841, speaking of the state of the colonial market says, "The increase in the imports from our eastern possessions this year is immense, and seems to indicate that the West India planters have more to fear from that quarter than from foreign competition. The Bengal indigo has driven the Carolina article out of the market in price and quality; and Europe and America are now principally supplied from thence. We find that the hemp from British India competes with that from Russia and Manilla, and that it is capable of fully supplying the present demand for the article, from the great variety of plants of the genus found in all parts of Asia. The import of hides into Liverpool from India was in 1835, 367,000, and in 1839, 443,000. The imports of raw silk from India have also augmented very much, I believe, as have the coarser kinds of the manufactured article.\* Flax-seed is also sent in very large quantities. Up to the end of the first quarter of this year, the imports of Indian flax-seed were about a fourth of the whole quantity from all parts—United States, Canada, &c. Wheat flour is also exported for the manufacturing of starch, and we find that in 1835 there was brought into Liverpool 4,300, and in 1837, 18,700 bags from India. Ginger from India is a well-known article in our country; and we find in 1835 the imports into Liverpool were 14,000 pockets and bags, and in 1839, 36,500 of the same packages. Saltpetre in 1835 was 34,300 bags and boxes, and in 1839, 58,000 ditto. In 1837, 500 casks of rum were imported from British India into Liverpool, and in the *first quarter* of 1841 we find in the Liverpool Mercantile Gazette of "5th April," 285 punch-eons and 835 hogsheads from Bengal and other parts of British India, into the same port. Pepper is a fluctuating article, but we find in 1835, the imports were 14,000 bags and bales, and in 1839, 24,000 ditto. The wool from the East Indies is of a poor quality, and generally used in the coarser manufactures; such as horse blankets, &c. The imports in 1839 were over 1,500,000 lbs., and in 1840, 2,441,370 lbs.

Now what are the conclusions which are forced upon us by the consideration of these facts? I think it is fully proved by all modern writers on India—1st. That she is amply capable of producing almost any quantity of the very articles which form the principal exports from our southern states. 2d. That she is willing. 3d. That there is abundance of tilled and untilled land. And 4th. That labor is plentiful and cheap.

Reflection on these facts and circumstances must bring to our minds

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\* Bandana handkerchiefs class as raw silk when undyed.

the inquiry—Will the planters of the southern states be able to stand the coming active competition; not only as to *quantity*, but as to *quality* of material? I think it all resolves itself into one simple answer, that they who sell the cheapest of the same article, of whatever variety of merchandise, and no prohibitions in the way, will get the most custom.

I believe it can be safely asserted, that with the present costly system of labor at the south, they will be unable to compete with the East Indies. If we have been able to produce the same articles better and cheaper with a rich soil and ingenious machinery, it does not stand to reason, that other countries with the same soil and cheaper labor, may not take advantage of our improvements, and backed by a wealthy company, and encouraged by a powerful government, be able to defy our competition. It is not possible—it is against the very nature of our present system.

I hope the planters of our southern states may not be afraid to ask themselves the question, Can we meet this scarcely to be supposed change? Is it politic, or profitable to continue the present wasteful system of labor any longer? The answer of every candid man who inquires into the subject is, you cannot go on exhausting whole tracts of fertile land by this plan—moving further west every few years, and the original plantations falling back into a fruitless wilderness, (which is the operation at the south,) without ruining yourselves, and the country also.

But perhaps it will be asked by the planters—Suppose we change the system; shall we be able with free labor, and time-saving machinery, to compete with labor in the East at 13 cents a day? I think this is satisfactorily answered by the fact, that we have at *present* the supplying of the largest quantity of the *two* main articles in which the southern states are *directly* concerned—cotton and tobacco; and that with our ingenuity and skill, free labor at twenty-five cents a day, and a shorter distance, no American can doubt that we should be able fully to compete with India in cheapness of production. Give America full swing and an open market, and England dreads her more than any other competitor. The very reverse of this is the case at present; continuing in our present system, we shall gaze on the conflict, and tremble for the result.

A few words, and this paper will be brought to a close. It may be supposed that if India entirely supplies Britain with the articles that we now do, she (Britain) will impoverish herself by losing so valuable a market for her manufactures as the United States now is. But a glance at the facts of the case will convince us of the error of such an idea. If England loses seventeen millions of customers in America, she gains one hundred millions in India. It is a fact not generally known (particularly in America,) that the present consumption of British manufactures in the East Indies is not more than thirteen cents a year for each individual, in the whole population! Jamaica consumes twenty dollars a head, Trinidad thirty dollars, Cape colony thirty dollars, Australia forty dollars—and India only a New York shilling! Give justice to India in law and commerce, and how will it stand? At the moderate computation of five dollars a head, she would take to the extent of five hundred millions of British manufactures annually! What an amount to our present consumption of fifty millions of dollars!

The writer of this article has no desire to show his country in the worst of lights, or to exult over her mistakes and errors. Far from it. It has been his aim, in collecting these few, but important facts, to endeavor to



show, without excitement, and by a detail of that which cannot be contradicted, the ruinous course the southern people are now pursuing; and which must certainly involve them in confusion and loss at no distant day. Heartily desiring the substantial and solid prosperity of all classes of his countrymen; and the permanency of her democratic institutions, which he believes are based on truth and excellence, the author of this communication respectfully asks their perusal and consideration, of this *attempt* to lay before them that which concerns them very deeply.

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### ART. III.—SKETCHES OF DISTINGUISHED MERCHANTS

#### INTRODUCTION.

AMONG the influences which lift men above present misfortune, and inspire them with courage at periods when even the prospect of success is vanished, there is none so strong as that which arises from the knowledge that similar misfortunes have been shared, and similar perils overcome, by those in whose path we are treading. The most intrepid man will waver, when he passes over a track in which the footsteps of past experience are invisible. But let him be told that through perseverance he will emerge from the gloom and confusion which is around him into the region to which his ambition is directed, and he will march forward with courage and with strength, inspired by the knowledge that there is scarcely a difficulty which he is to encounter which has not already been vanquished and driven from the field by many whose armor was no stronger than his own. His understanding is not only strengthened and convinced, but his enterprise is enlivened, and his ambition confirmed. We admire the stoutness of heart in those who stood undaunted in face of the disasters which were pouring upon them; and our admiration becomes before long converted, first, into a wish to follow the path which they have chalked out, and secondly, into a determination to pursue it. We see with distinctness the extent of human energy, when in its fulness it is developed; and we determine that the latent qualifications which in our own breast are lurking, shall be brought out and exercised in the degree in which they were formerly so successful.

The example of great and good men, while it gives us strength and courage to mount over the obstacles which are thrown in our path, leads us also by itself to good fortune. It teaches us the faculty of wise and moderate enjoyment; and it teaches us, therefore, to restrain ourselves, when prosperous, within those limits which in adversity we learnt to observe. By accustoming us to the idea that our fortune may take a sudden and disastrous turn, it guaranties us from despair and paralysis if the turn should actually take place. It tells us how to be moderate when moderation is unnecessary, in order that we may bear it with comfort when it should become inevitable. If such, therefore, is the general influence of the history of distinguished men upon those with whom the only affinity with which they are bound is that of humanity, it becomes worth while to

inquire to what purposes of usefulness the same influence may be bent, when he that is the subject of it, and those on whom it operates, stand in the same position, and are occupied in the same sphere. We proceed to consider to what extent the history of eminent merchants can be made profitable to the novice and even to the adept in the affairs of trade.

When we have determined on a pursuit that is to secure us a future support, and to obtain for us probable happiness, it becomes natural to inquire, What are the properties of the pursuit which we have chosen ;—what means are necessary for us to insure success ;—what difficulties and drawbacks will fall in our way ;—and what methods should we make use of to overcome them ? To one whose individual experience is limited, such questions can with difficulty be answered. The young man who enters upon the rugged and winding path of trade, cannot be supposed to foresee the stones on which he may stumble, or the ditch into which he may slip. He may misconstrue events that to the unpractised eye are apparently unimportant, but which, when they are introduced into the web of real life, modify or change its texture. Those various tools, which in the hand of the practised merchant alone are valuable, he may mishandle and abuse. By dangers which arise unexpectedly, because they arise in defiance of his crude opinions, by the subtlety or craft of those with whom he must deal, or by the accident which in each great system is ingredient, his schemes may be blasted, and he may be led himself into ruin, against which it required experience as well as prudence to guard. To acquire a guide so invaluable, is too often the work of a lifetime of toil and mortification ; but it is worthy of consideration, whether by falling back on the log-book of others who have steered through the same course,—whether by making use of their adventures as a plummet by which the depth of the stream may be told, and their chart as a memorial of errors that can be avoided or of points that can be made,—we may not arrive at the harbor to which we are bound by a simpler and more speedy route. We can observe, by a study of the history of merchants who have passed successfully through their business career, what means were used by them for the attainment of the end that was placed before them ; in what relations they were thrown before their entrance into the great occupation of their life, and how they passed the period of their novitiate ; what were the resources which they brought into play, and under what auspices their exertions commenced ; how far their peculiar condition, or the temporary aspect of trade, acted on their course ; in what degree their success was accelerated by prudent attention or lucky speculation, or to what extent their adventures were blighted by their carelessness, their errors, or their misfortunes.

If the life of a merchant should be thus represented,—if the whole track of his mercantile career be followed up, so that each important incident should be pointed out and elucidated ; if the influences which bore upon him, and their results, be exhibited ;—a history may be composed that would be of the highest use to those who wish to pursue the course which it would so fully detail. We learn the amount of general as well as mercantile information that may be advantageous to us in our occupation, and discover how injurious will be an inattention to subjects so important ; we discover how indispensable are industry, prudence, economy, and tact ; and how great was the eminence obtained by those who united elements so necessary. We become more attentive to qualifications which we see

are the touchstones of success, and give our best exertions to their acquisition.

Every scheme, every speculation of the merchant, should be built on a constant reference to the present condition of the world on which it is to act. His relations are based on the action of every-day life, his whole profession rests upon his constant intercourse with his fellow-men; his maxims must be taken from reality itself, and his experience from his own achievements. It is not enough for him to be conscious of the existence of a fact on which his operations are to be founded; he must search out for its remote origin, and look to its ultimate effects. A spirit of observation so extended will ward him from false opinions and wild speculations, it will show him that with which he has to deal in its essential form, and will impart to him the faculty of ripe and rapid judgment. It may be maintained that to arrive at such a knowledge there is no means so efficacious as to follow out step by step the biography of men who have preceded us in the career into which we are about to enter, to observe them in their various positions, to discover, as far as possible, the actuating motives by which they were led, and to trace out the character of their operation.

But useful as it may be to arouse in the mind feelings of a pure and exalted nature, it is not at such a goal that the biographer should restrain himself. There are but few men, if we look on mankind in a body, on whom the example alone of greatness is sufficient to produce a strong and lasting influence. The great mass think that their powers are not adequate to a career so lofty as that which is displayed before them, and satisfy themselves with the consolatory conclusion, that as it is the province of but few to be born great, their lot has fallen with the many to whom greatness would be beyond the sphere of possibility.

It becomes, therefore, the occasional duty of the biographer to choose his subjects from a class to which all, whose parts are moderate, whose ambition steady, and whose industry unwavering, can elevate themselves. To the historian of commerce, the merchant who has risen by slow but patient ascent to an eminence to which all, with ordinary capacity and the same determination, can arrive, is a far more suitable theme than he who, by a sudden leap, or a mad speculation, has pounced by accident on success; for the track of the latter, like that of a comet, whose movements are the result of its own mad strength, or of some external preponderating attraction, can be seldom pursued; but the orbit of the former, described as it is by the ordinary measure of life, and laid down within bounds which it requires but ordinary ability to follow out, is open to all whose industry and whose determination fit them for its course.

It is the first object in mercantile biography to represent each branch of trade as it exists in the practical world, and to exhibit in their true relief, the various incidents with which it is connected. In the same manner as by the study of the principles of trade we become acquainted with its theory and its character, we can learn, through the study of the lives of merchants, in what way the principles themselves can be brought into play, what practical bearings they possess, to what variations they are subjected by the circumstances under which they operate, what is the extent and scope of which they are capable, and to what degree of success they are calculated ultimately to lead. It would be well, if among the means which, to the honor of our race, are at present exerting for its elevation,



more stress was laid on the more practical methods by which men may be made wiser themselves through the wise example of others. The guide which is thus afforded is more potent than the representation of the most pungent maxims or the teaching of the purest morals, since the latter, even in the most attractive habiliments, are deficient in the interest which their intrinsic worth deserves. So long as the great mass of men are unconvinced of the *practicability* of those great theories on which commerce rests,—so long as they are unable to detect their wholesome working,—they will continue to hold them as fair but flimsy dreams, which are more calculated to arouse admiration than conviction, and which must yield, in practice, to the jar of circumstance and the pressure of necessity.

As we are accustomed to look at the ordinary affairs of life only in their direct relations, to take into account the immediate effects alone, without looking into those which are more remote, it is often not enough that our understanding should be convinced how important it would be for us to acquire certain qualities, or to master points which lay before us in our path, since we are apt even in such cases to deny the conclusion which is placed before us, and to question whether, when reduced to action, the course which is prescribed to us would, in fact, be so beneficial. It is here that biography comes in, and by showing the usefulness of the steps laid down, disarms the objection which is in most cases sufficient to overthrow theories the most just and the most practicable. We may hope that the time will soon arrive when the sound influence of biography on the intellectual and political education of mankind will be more generally recognised, and that the history of the life and the actions,—of the trials and the triumphs,—of men of every class, will be more frequently made use of for the instruction of those with whom their lot is similar.

CHARLES LOUIS MONTAUSNIER.\*

Montausnier's father was a respectable merchant in Bordeaux, of considerable property and of large commercial connections. He was eminently successful in business until the unfortunate epoch of which we shall presently speak. He had but one son, Charles Louis, born in the year 1750, whom he brought up very carefully. As soon as the boy was old enough, his father accustomed him to business, gave him all the advantage of his own experience in commercial matters, which he understood thoroughly, and pursued such a successful plan with him, that at fourteen he had a fund of information rarely to be met with at his age. This is the more easily to be accounted for, as Charles seconded, by his quick mind and untiring industry, the exertions of his father. About this time his father sent him to a considerable house in Amsterdam. He paid his board there, but carefully concealed the fact from the young man, whom he desired should be treated in every respect as a common apprentice, since he knew that even the best brought-up young man needs a sharp look-out on him, and that those particularly who expect to have the supervision of a large number of workmen should begin by learning the exact condition of those whom they are to command. It would be well if all fathers in similar circumstances would follow his example, as most young merchants who serve

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\* From the German "*Lebensbeschreibungen merkwürdiger und berühmter Kaufleute.*" Nuremberg, 1832.

away from home as boarders, enjoy entirely too great freedom, not only as regards business, but in their whole course of life. The bad effects of this cannot be estimated, as they not only lose the opportunity of gaining valuable information, which should be their great aim, but they acquire a distaste for business, and a fondness for pleasures too often immoral in their tendencies, and are led on by the example of others to actions of which the evil consequences sometimes follow them to the grave. Montaussier passed four years in Amsterdam, and worked the whole time with great industry. He strove particularly to acquaint himself with the state of trade in Germany, as the intercourse between that country and his native town was at that time extremely important. His master at his departure testified his entire satisfaction with him, remained ever after his friend, and was the means afterward of rendering him several important services. After he had been two years at home, his father determined to send him on a journey to the north, in order that he might superintend his business, which lay mostly in that direction, and acquire at the same time a new stock of information. He set off in the year 1770 for Hamburg, where he passed a year among his father's friends, and in that time acquired a thorough knowledge of the trade of the region in which he was placed. He then went to Stockholm, where he remained a short time, and then directed his course to St. Petersburg. After a visit there, he went to a few ports on the Baltic, and from thence sailed to Lubec. On this voyage, the ship in which he sailed was overtaken by a violent storm. The danger soon became very great, as she had sprung a leak and began to let in water, and they were first obliged to lower the great mast, and then to throw all the furniture overboard. They soon found, however, that they must abandon the ship or perish; and the captain with the passengers and crew got into the small-boat, and after much peril arrived safely at Travemunde. Montaussier then travelled through the greater part of Germany, and returned to Bordeaux through Switzerland, having passed about four years on his travels. He had employed his time most advantageously, having examined carefully the peculiarities of trade in each country, and each large town through which he passed, and made himself acquainted with every thing that could have a bearing on his own commercial affairs. He observed also attentively the manners, morals, and government of the different people he visited, and acquired that ease of manner which is only to be gained by mixing in different sorts of society.

His father took him into his business as partner on his return, and found him a great assistance in his very arduous duties. He soon enlarged his father's trade considerably, and as he had made it his business when away to investigate the credit of their former friends, he broke off with many of them, and connected himself with others very extensively.

He had traded in partnership with his father very prosperously for about six years, when suddenly all his good fortune abandoned him. His father had a friend named Montaubert, whom he had always considered an honest man, but who had fallen into very embarrassed circumstances, and who had drawn bills of exchange on himself for a considerable amount, which, having failed, his creditors insisted on being paid, and threatened to arrest him. He immediately acquainted old Montaussier with the state of his affairs, imposed upon him by means of forged papers, and begged him to go bail for him for 80,000 *livres*. The old man, who was very much attached to his friend, and had perfect confidence in his integrity, allowed

himself to be persuaded, and gave the required security without further investigation, thinking the securities in his hands a sufficient pledge. Montaubert no sooner obtained his freedom, than he fled with all he had left, and entirely escaped the vigilance of his pursuers. Montausnier now began to suspect the baseness of his friend: he had the securities examined, and found that they were entirely false, and was obliged to pay himself the large sum of 80,000 *livres*, for which he had gone bail. It may be easily conceived that this great loss threw their business into some confusion; but they still kept their credit, and would have soon entirely recovered, had they not met several other misfortunes. Two great houses in Hamburg and London were then embarking in immense speculations, and desired from Montausnier a loan of from 50 to 60,000 *livres*, which, from his own experience, and every inquiry he made, he considered perfectly safe, and gave without further consideration. These speculations were, however, the last means which the houses had taken to extricate themselves from a most embarrassed state of affairs: they were unfortunate in them, and both failed within a month afterward. About the same time, a ship, of which he was the insurer, was taken by an Algerine corsair. These accumulated troubles were too much for him; he could no longer pay the bills of exchange due on him, and he failed therefore in a short time, in the year 1782. Two months afterward his father died, full of grief at leaving his son in such an unfortunate state. Montausnier had too much real greatness of mind to allow himself to be discouraged by these untoward circumstances; he bore his fate with firmness. Too noble to enrich himself at the expense of others, he acted in the arrangement of his affairs with a rare honesty and an almost unexampled generosity. His creditors were willing to take sixty per cent, and leave him whatever might remain, to assist him in recommencing business. This he steadily refused. As he had no family, and no one but himself to provide for, he considered it unjust that others should have to sacrifice any thing in order to assist him. He sold his house, his goods, his furniture, and implements of trade, and gave up all to his creditors, who now had ninety per cent. This conduct raised him so high in the estimation of his fellow-citizens and his foreign friends, that they were all anxious to assist him, and offered him greater credit than before. He made, however, no use of their offer, as he found himself almost entirely destitute, (his whole fortune consisting in about one hundred louis d'ors,) and did not wish to trust any more to the uncertainty of trade. Soon after he received, through the recommendation of one of his former creditors, the situation of overseer to a respectable and wealthy merchant in Lyons, named John Vertois. M. Vertois did a very considerable business, and possessed a large silk manufactory in which he employed a number of workmen; and as he was growing old, and had no son to whom he could intrust his affairs, he was in want of a person in whom he could place implicit confidence. This person he found in Montausnier, who entered with such zeal into his affairs, and improved and enlarged his business so much, that he won the confidence of his master entirely, who, in the year 1786, bestowed on him his only daughter in marriage, and took him in as partner in the business. A year afterward he died, leaving him a very considerable property. Montausnier continued the business now alone with great success; all his undertakings prospered, and it seemed as if fortune intended to repay him for all she had previously made him suffer. He was now in every respect in a most favorable posi-



tion; he possessed the esteem of his fellow-citizens, and was much admired in society on account of his polished manners, his extensive information, and his great experience.

In June, 1789, he was obliged to go to Paris on some important business. The state of things there roused his whole attention, and the warm interest he took in every thing relating to his native land, soon led him to discover the errors in the old government. The revolution broke out at last, in July. Montaussier took part in the occurrences of the first day, united himself with the armed citizens, and was among the foremost of those who stormed the Bastille, when he received a wound, which was not, however, of much consequence. As soon as Paris became quiet, he returned to Lyons, where he assisted the introduction of the new system, without, however, taking any public position. For some time he led a peaceful and happy life, devoted to his business, his family, and his friends. His commercial affairs continued to prosper, without being affected by the state of the country, until the year 1793, when he became involved in the sad fate of his native town; and after the conquest and destruction of Lyons, shared in the general slaughter of his fellow-citizens.

In order to understand these occurrences as far as they have reference to him, we must go back a little to the events which produced them.

The death of Louis XVI. did not meet in Lyons with the approbation which the ruling party expected; indeed, many gave open signs of displeasure, and expressed themselves against the Jacobins; who, enraged on that account, endeavored in every way to ruin the more moderate patriots. One in particular, named Challier, used all his exertions to push the people on to violent measures, and to introduce the reign of terror in Lyons. The excellent mayor, Nivière Chol with several other worthy men who held public offices, endeavored in every way to counteract his influence; and when they were on the point of breaking out, he ordered the troops out upon them, and thus frustrated for the time their plans. The Jacobins now turned to the convention, and represented the Lyonese as royalists, who persecuted all the true patriots. The convention, in order to sustain the Jacobins, sent off immediately two battalions to restore peace and order; and when they arrived they had recourse to the most violent measures. It was determined to establish a revolutionary army, for the support of freedom, which should be raised and maintained entirely at the expense of the rich. They therefore threw the most respectable citizens, whom they supposed to be rich, into prison, without giving any reason, and detained them there often a long time, without their being able to imagine the crime of which they were guilty. The municipality, which was now entirely composed of Jacobins, sported at its pleasure with the property and security of the citizens, and endeavored in every way to make the best patriots obnoxious. About this time the convention decreed that the sections should assemble, and resolve upon whatever measures were necessary to their security. The Lyonese made use of this to draw themselves out of their painful position. As soon as the Jacobins and the municipality remarked this, they endeavored in every way to prevent it; they armed the *clubists*, with their followers, and all assembled in the principal church. The sections also took up arms, and deposed the municipality, who, in their turn, declared that the sections should lay down their arms on pain of death. War was now declared, and the battle commenced in every part of the town, (May 30th, 1793.) The clubists

gave themselves up during the day to the greatest cruelties, killing and mutilating all the prisoners who fell into their hands ; while the citizens, on the contrary, treated their wounded opponents with the greatest kindness and compassion. The issue of the conflict was for a long time doubtful ; but the citizens at length conquered, drove their enemies back, and took possession of the most important posts of the town. One thousand five hundred of the citizens fell in this encounter, and still more of the clubists.

The sections now opened a subscription for the relief of those who had lost their fathers or husbands in the battle, and gave the same assistance to the widows and orphans of their enemies that they did to their own. The conquerors then sought out the enemies of peace and order, put them in prison, and then commenced their trial according to the strict rules of the law. Challier and Rierd alone were condemned to death ; while the other less reprehensible leaders received a slight punishment.

Montaussier showed himself all along very active in the good cause. He was the first in his section to insist on a general arming ; and he inspired by his firmness and the influence he possessed, many who would otherwise have given the whole thing up in despair. When he came to the battle he led on a small column, and took possession with it of a very important post ; upon the first attack he received a musket-ball in his arm, but he fought on unmindful of it, and did not give up until the post was taken.

It was then, when peace had been just restored at Lyons, that Paris was thrown into commotion by the well-known scenes of the 31st of May, in which the Jacobin deputies obtained a decisive victory over the opposite party. The convention resorted to violent measures to bring the refractory departments to submission ; and published a decree, by which the greater part of the inhabitants of Lyons were declared to be outlaws. Upon hearing this, the Lyonese sent several deputies to Paris to enforce the adoption of a constitution, and to endeavor to effect the repeal of the decree. They were received in such a manner as to give them no hopes of success, and only escaped imprisonment by a speedy flight. Among other requirements, they were desired to lay down their arms, and to give up the members of the new administration ; and upon their steady refusal, a considerable army was ordered out upon them.

Every preparation was now made in Lyons for a courageous defence ; the most important posts were fortified, and the citizens, amounting to about forty thousand, trained for arms. Montaussier gave his assistance in every way in his power ; he made several considerable loans of money to purchase ammunition, and provided several poor citizens in his battalion with the needful arms. He did every thing to inspirit his men, and took his stand with them at a most important post in the outworks, which, on account of his well-known patriotism, was intrusted to him. The besieging army in the mean while approached, and endeavored to storm the town on all sides, but were everywhere driven back.

The post which Montaussier occupied was one of the first attacked, and became the scene of a very violent conflict. Twice the convention's troops rushed upon the Lyonese, and twice were they repulsed : they waited for a fresh supply, and began the third attack ; their opponents, seeing their superiority in numbers, grew dispirited, and wavered. No sooner did Montaussier perceive this, than, calling to his friends to follow him, he

left the intrenchment, and rushed to meet the enemy. The courage of his men revived on seeing this ; they followed him, attacked the convention troops, who, astonished at their boldness, yielded almost immediately ; and Montaussier remained master of this most advantageous post.

Finding it impossible to take the town by storm, the besiegers determined to lay a regular siege to it ; and in order the sooner to effect their plans, they endeavored to sow dissensions among the besieged. They used great efforts to separate the sections from the government ; promised them full pardon if they would lay down arms, open the gates of the town, and give up the members of the municipality, of the administration, and of the executive corps. These propositions were received with contempt by the sections, whom it only served to render more hostile.

The Lyonese soon saw that great supplies of money would be needed to meet the daily demands ; they therefore established a fund, to be raised by contributions from each citizen proportionate to his income. The management of the treasury was intrusted to Montaussier and two other citizens, who acquitted themselves to the general satisfaction. The bombardment now commenced, and was carried on with the greatest vigor, particularly during the night. The arsenal, the most splendid buildings, and whole streets, were burnt down.

Montaussier was still commanding in the outworks, when, on the thirtieth day of the siege, 22d September, 1793, a fire broke out in several places in the street in which his family lived. His wife lay with her children in the deepest sleep, when, aroused by the noise, she awakened to find herself surrounded by flames. She escaped with great difficulty, by the help of a faithful servant, who also saved her youngest son ; the eldest was already a prey to the raging element. As they were endeavoring to escape from the burning street, a bomb fell, and killed her remaining child and the man who carried him.

Montaussier soon perceived from his post that the street on fire was the one in which he lived. Distracted about his family, whom he tenderly loved, he would willingly have laid down his life to be allowed to hurry to their assistance ; but duty and honor commanded him not to abandon the spot intrusted to him by his citizens in time of danger, and he remained. He suppressed his own griefs, gave with great presence of mind the necessary directions in case of an attack by the enemy, and only turned an occasional look towards the place where he was perhaps just losing all that was dear to him in life. Not until break of day, when every danger of an eruption was over, did he give up the command to the next officer, and hurried to the town to relieve himself of his torturing suspense. When he arrived at his house, he found it a heap of ruins, and no traces of his beloved family. He then hurried to the dwelling of a friend, where he found his wife, and heard the sad tale of their misfortunes. His grief was deep ; it was that of a tender father, but he did not suffer it to unman him ; he still rejoiced that his beloved wife, the dearest object to him on earth, was left to him. She showed uncommon firmness and fortitude, gave way to no useless complaints at her hard fate, but informed her husband that it was her firm determination to share his fate, to fight side by side with him for their native town, and with him to conquer or to die. She had long nourished this plan, but the strong ties of maternal love had kept her bound to her children. These ties were now severed ; she had nothing left but her husband, and she was determined to share his fate,



whatever that might be. Montaussier did all he could to dissuade her from this determination, but she was resolute, and set out with him the next morning for his post in full armor, where she conducted herself with all the bravery and skill of an experienced soldier.

Several days after this, Montaussier determined on making an attack upon the enemy, and driving them from a position very troublesome to him. Notwithstanding his remonstrances, his wife accompanied him, and did not stir from his side. The enemy was strong, and the conflict became very violent. Just as the Lyonese were gaining the advantage, Montaussier's horse was shot dead under him, and before he could rise, an officer held a pistol to his head and commanded him to surrender. His wife saw this, and took aim at the officer, but her pistol missed, and he shot her down before any one could come to her assistance. Montaussier had in the mean while risen, and rushed upon the officer, whom he killed; he then, thinking his wife dead, rallied his men round him, and made another desperate attack upon the enemy, which at last compelled them to fly. Upon returning to his wife, he found that, though mortally wounded, she was yet alive. Every thing was done for her that could be done, but her condition was desperate. She died a few hours after, full of joy that she had saved the life of her beloved husband, and that the sad fate was not reserved to her of surviving him. Montaussier had now lost every thing that could make life dear to him: the future had no charms for him; the only thing in which he felt an interest was the fate of his fellow-citizens. In their welfare he endeavored to lose sight of his own sorrows. A few days after this event, his post was attacked, through the treachery of a deserter, at the spot where it was most easy to break through. The Lyonese fought like men who are determined to maintain their post or perish, but the enemy was too numerous for them, and they were obliged to give way. Montaussier, after receiving two wounds, fought until a musket-ball, which he received in his thigh, threw him to the earth. Some of his men surrounded him and carried him off to the town; the others who remained to cover his retreat were almost all shot down. His wounds were, however, not dangerous, and he was able to walk again in two weeks.

The fate of Lyons was now drawing rapidly to its sad conclusion. The most important outworks and posts were lost, and the number of defenders had melted down from forty thousand to ten thousand. The people, pushed to the last extremity for want of provisions, began to murmur. Lyons had now, without fortifications or regular troops, held out seventy days against an army of more than a hundred thousand men, during which time, thirty thousand bombs, and a hundred thousand red-hot balls, besides the usual cannon balls, had been fired into the town, and reduced almost all the public buildings to ashes.

The government of the town and the commanding general now resolved upon a retreat, in order to save the members of the administration and the citizens who yet remained. Every preparation was made for their departure, and Montaussier was placed at the head of a department, when the plan was betrayed to the enemy, who filled the whole country round Lyons with troops. In the narrow passes of St. Cyr and St. Germain, the Lyonese were attacked on all sides by an army of fifty thousand men, and exposed to the incessant fire of a considerable artillery, with which the hills were covered. All their previous plans and precautions

were now entirely unavailing, and resistance was useless. The soldiers were either cut down or taken prisoners; only about forty men had the good fortune to escape death or imprisonment. Montausnier was resolved to die sword in hand, rather than fall into the hands of the enemy, from whom he could expect no mercy. He had already received two wounds, and could hardly hold himself upon his horse, but he refused all offers of quarter, and fought on until his horse was killed under him, when he fell to the ground and was taken prisoner.

He was brought back with the rest of the prisoners to Lyons, and put in prison, where his fate was soon decided. He was one of the leaders who, in the first few days after the taking of Lyons, were condemned to death. This early execution was a blessing to him, for it spared him the sight of the sufferings which his unhappy townsmen endured afterward, and which he would have felt so deeply. He heard his sentence with composure, like a man who knew his fate before, and did not dread it.

On the 10th of November he was led out on the wall to be shot. He found there one of his friends, who, less accustomed than he to the contemplation of death, showed great fear of it. Montausnier by his conversation inspired him with such confidence that he met his end courageously. Montausnier's turn came next; his last words were a prayer for his native land. He kneeled down, with his eyes unbandaged, and fell without a sound at the first shot.

Thus perished a man, estimable alike as a merchant, a father, a husband, and a citizen. By his own exertions he raised himself from very embarrassed circumstances to the highest degree of worldly prosperity and felicity. He fell unexpectedly from this high eminence, but no misfortunes could deprive him of that greatness of mind which raised him above all the trials of life.

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#### ART. IV.—COMMERCIAL DOCKS.

INCREASE OF COMMERCE OF NEW YORK—ATLANTIC DOCK—DOCKS ON THE THAMES—LIVERPOOL DOCKS—BUTE DOCK—HUMBER AND HULL DOCKS—BASINS AT HAVRE, MARSEILLES, ANTWERP, AND ALBANY.

FROM the period of uniting the waters of the Atlantic with those of Lake Erie, there has been an increase of population, wealth, trade, and commerce in the city of New York, that has been rapid beyond all precedent. Possessing, as she does, all the prerogatives that the most sagacious minds and the most intelligent judges can invent or desire, this "queen of cities" is, and will continue to be, the great commercial mart of an almost unlimited territory, intersected by navigable rivers and extensive lakes, the shores of which are bordered with a soil prolific in all the resources of agricultural wealth, as well as in the products of the forests, the mine, and the chase. Her fame is borne in proud, but peaceful triumph, on the wave of every sea, to the bosom of every harbor; and her mercantile navy spreads a cheering welcome to every wind that blows. Her future greatness is marked out by numerous canals, railroads, and other channels of intercourse, to be continued, enlarged, or improved, which are to pour

upon her citizens the rich freights of the north, the east, the south, and the "far-famed west," as well as the luxuries of foreign climes, and thereby add to her increase and consequent wealth.

Upon these premises then, let us look about us and see if we are prepared to meet the exigences that this important subject demands.

It will be perceived by referring to a subsequent table, that the increase of population in the city of New York for the last twenty years, is  $152\frac{2}{3}\%$  per cent, and that of the city of Brooklyn, which in the main is indebted for her growth to the increase of New York, is  $384\frac{7}{8}\%$  per cent. And the present prospect, so far from indicating any diminution in the respective ratios of increase of these two cities, affords the almost certain assurance that the period is not very far distant when their joint population will equal or exceed half a million. The amount of tonnage of the vessels entering and departing from New York, has, of course, increased, and will continue to increase, in proportion to the increase of her inland trade. Although her present number of arrivals does not much exceed that of 1810, yet her amount of tonnage has increased more than 150 per cent since 1820—a remarkable coincidence of being of very nearly of the same ratio as her increase of population.\* The amount of merchandise annually loaded and unloaded, within these last few years, is estimated at \$100,000,000 to \$120,000,000. Her tonnage is greater than that of any other city in the world, with the single exception of London, and constitutes more than one sixth of that of all the United States put together! The number of vessels in port in the busy season has been estimated at more than 800, exclusively of a great number of steamboats and smaller craft, the bulk of which usually lies between the Battery and Corlaer's Hook, on East river, and as high up as Canal-street, on North river. These portions of the port, at particular seasons, are often in so crowded a condition, that many vessels necessarily have to anchor off in the stream, and there discharge their freights with lighters or barges, or to wait for a week or ten days before they can secure a proper berth for unloading, and then, oftentimes, the best they can obtain is an outside one, which obliges them to discharge their cargoes over the decks of two or more other vessels. The consignee of the goods is unable to obtain them, and thereby disappoints his customers, and even frequently loses their sale in consequence of such delay. It is, moreover, a matter so well understood, that an allusion to it hardly seems necessary, that the increase and general use of steamboats, towboats, &c., in various forms, have created a demand for a species of dock room, and a kind of exclusive use thereof, which could not have been anticipated a few years ago. The increase of steam navigation has been so great that it has been driven, each year, more and more remote from the centre of business to obtain suitable accommodation, and the arrival of the European steamers which have awakened so lively an interest throughout the community these last three years, cannot fail to suggest that more ample provision will soon be required for this class of vessels. They cannot consistently intermingle with the other shipping at the crowded docks of this port on account of the immense space they occupy, their difficulty of access, and numerous other objections. The piers and

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\* See "Statistics of Population" in the Merchants' Magazine for the present month. See also "Commercial Statistics," page 283.—*Ed. Mag.*



wharves, during the busy season, are heaped in confusion with produce and merchandise, and the delays and other inconveniences caused by the want of proper accommodation, are often the most harassing, as well as expensive to the parties concerned. Circumscribed and limited, then, as the commercial district of New York is, and must continue to be, unless some favorable expedient offer itself, where shall the future increase of shipping that must eventually come to this port, find accommodation? Where shall we find room for the growing trade of the interior, when our enlarged canal and other great thoroughfares of intercommunication, now in progress, shall pour into the Hudson, and thence to our piers and slips, myriads of "craft" from a "thousand ports," laden with rich cargoes to be stored, transhipped, or consumed, without incurring expenses for cartage, warehousing, &c., too heavy to be endured? Can New York extend the limits of her water front, without reaching beyond "that convenient proximity to the business centre," which the lower part of the city affords, and which is likely forever to remain where several generations have fixed it? "Nature and common consent have alike determined the point, and it cannot be removed."

In order to surmount the foregoing difficulties, we think there has been no expedient proposed, if properly carried out, that will be more likely to succeed, and will better answer the desired end, than the ATLANTIC BASIN, the construction of which has lately been commenced in New York. This noble work has been undertaken by the "Atlantic Dock Company," a body corporate by an act of the legislature of the state of New York, passed May 6th, 1840; with a capital of \$1,000,000, and with a right to commence the operations of the company when \$100,000 are subscribed and paid in, which requisition has been complied with. The shares are \$100 each—are deemed personal property, and are transferable on the books of the company, or by an authorized attorney. Each shareholder is entitled to one vote at any election for directors, for every share of stock so held.

The object of the company is to construct piers and bulkheads, forming a basin to embrace a water surface of about 42 acres, to be surrounded by rows of spacious warehouses, to which any class of vessels, from the large ship of war down to the Erie canal boat, can come and discharge or receive freight, and where they can enter at any stage of the tide, and remain in perfect safety, in all kinds of weather, in every season of the year.

The work is located between Governor's Island and the Long Island shore, as shown on the annexed diagram, and is situated about one and a half miles from the Merchants' Exchange, in Wall-street. The location has been selected after thorough and careful soundings, and an examination of the ground under water, which was found easy for excavation, and free from rock; and also after considering its relative position and advantages to all the locations in and about this port. The shores of New York, Brooklyn, and Jersey city, have all been examined by experienced and scientific gentlemen, and the result is, that the present location possesses many superior advantages over any other; being easy of access, and a short distance from the centre of business in New York. The distance of this location from the centre of business, and being on the opposite side of the river, cannot be deemed an objection, as it is not without precedent in other similar works. The "West India Docks," situated at Blackwall, on the river Thames, are about  $3\frac{1}{2}$  miles from the London Ex-

change, or the centre of the main business of London. The "Commercial Docks," constituting the largest basins of London, are situated on the south side of the Thames, while the bulk of business is transacted on the northerly side, where are also the Bank of England, Exchange, &c. The ordinary tides of the Thames are about twenty feet, which renders the crossing at all hours difficult. In our harbor the ordinary tides are only about five feet, and there are no impediments to crossing the East river at all hours, with a safety, certainty, and despatch, unequalled by any other mode of travelling the same distance. The expense also is trifling, and this will rapidly decrease under the present ferry regulations.

The whole work is under contract, and one half of the piers and bulk-heads will be ready for the erection of warehouses, and one half of the basin will be ready for use on the 1st of May, 1842. The land and water right designed for this object, embraces about 80 acres. The piers are to be constructed 150 feet wide, forming the front of the basin on the stream, divided by an entrance 200 feet wide. The depth of water in a portion of the basin at low tide is to be 25 feet, and on the outside of the pier as well as in the basin, the depth will be sufficient to moor the largest class of steamships or merchant vessels.

The utility and necessity of the proposed improvements, must be evident from the following considerations :

*First.* That the main business of New York is now, and in all probability will, for centuries to come, be transacted in and near Wall-street, where are situated the Customhouse, Exchange, Banks, Insurance offices, &c.

*Second.* That all the docks in New York, from the Battery to Corlaer's Hook, on East river, and as high up as Canal-street, on North river, are now full and crowded, and cannot afford additional accommodation.

*Third.* That the shipping interest of this port will prefer to go into the docks at Brooklyn, or the Atlantic Basin, rather than go up either river on the New York side further than the points above mentioned—especially when better accommodation can be had elsewhere.

*Fourth.* The benefit to vessels to be safely moored and protected against heavy gales of wind, tides, and currents, which annually do more or less damage to the shipping in harbors that are not land-locked and surrounded by high grounds or buildings.

*Fifth.* That vessels in a basin, with proper police regulations, are less liable to fire, robbery, and other depredations;\* and experience has shown that they are better preserved, especially in their rigging and cables, being better sheltered than those moored at the wharves or in the stream.

*Sixth.* The erection of a contemplated *Floating Dry Dock* within the basin, will enable government as well as the shipowner to raise vessels out of the water more economically, expeditiously, and with less risk than by the usual method.

*Seventh.* From the use of this establishment in warehousing produce or merchandise, commerce will derive incalculable advantages by the despatch in loading and unloading goods, with a great reduction of expenses.

The facility for warehousing heavy goods on the piers and around the

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\* Previously to the construction of the wet docks on the Thames, the property annually pillaged from ships, was estimated to amount to £500,000 a year.





basin, such as iron, lead, dyewoods, tea, bags of coffee, molasses, sugars, spirits, wines, hides, cotton bales, wool, &c., which can be done directly from the ship's hold into the warehouse, would be a saving of 50 to 75 per cent. in cartage and all other expenses, including a redelivery, as has been computed by competent persons, after a careful investigation. To exemplify the foregoing, one fact among the many which daily occur, may be mentioned. An eastern manufacturing house recently purchased of one of our largest importing houses, 100 tons of iron, which had been deposited in their store No. 119 Greenwich-street, at the ordinary cartage expense of 50 cents per ton. The same expense (50 cents per ton) was incurred again in delivering it to the purchaser on board of an eastern packet, making \$1 per ton for cartage, besides additional expenses for labor. If on the arrival of this iron from a foreign port, it had been deposited in a warehouse on these piers, and when sold, put directly on board the eastern packet, lying at the pier fronting the warehouse, the reader will perceive that two cartages and much extra labor would have been saved. The annual amount paid in the city of New York for the cartage of produce or merchandise that requires reshipment, has been estimated, by competent judges, to be at least half a million of dollars, a considerable part of which would be saved if this portion of business were done at the Atlantic Basin.

A comparison of this work with others of a similar kind, cannot fail to present a favorable view of its utility and importance.

**WEST INDIA DOCKS.**—It is singular that, notwithstanding the obvious utility of wet docks, and the vast trade of the British metropolis, there was no establishment of this sort on the Thames till nearly a century after a wet dock had been constructed at Liverpool. The inconvenience arising from the crowded state of the river, at the periods when fleets of merchantmen were accustomed to arrive, the insufficient accommodation afforded by the legal quays and sufferance wharfs, the necessity under which many ships were placed of unloading in the river into lighters, and the insecurity and loss of property thence arising, had been long felt as almost intolerable grievances; but so powerful was the opposition to any change, made by the private wharfingers and others interested in the support of the existing order of things, that it was not till 1793, that a plan was projected for making wet docks for the port of London; and six years more elapsed before the act for the construction of the West India Docks was passed. They were first, and continue to be the most extensive, of the great warehousing establishments formed in the port of London. Their construction commenced in February, 1800, and they were partially opened in August, 1802. They stretch across the isthmus, joining the Isle of Dogs to the Middlesex side of the Thames. They originally consisted of an Import and Export Dock, the names of which denote their uses, each communicating, by means of locks, with a basin five or six acres in extent at the end next Blackwall, and with another more than two acres at the end next Limehouse; both of these basins communicate with the Thames. To these works, the West India Dock Company have since added the South Dock, formerly the City Canal, which runs parallel to the Export Dock. This canal was intended to facilitate navigation, by enabling ships to avoid the circuitous course round the Isle of Dogs. It was, however, but little used for that purpose, and is now appropriated to the lumber trade, for the greater accommodation of which, a pond of nine-

teen acres has been formed within a few years on the south side for the reception of bonded timber.

	Length. Yards.	Width. Yards.	Area. Acres.
Export Dock, . . . .	870 . . . .	135 . . . .	24½
Import Dock, . . . .	870 . . . .	166 . . . .	29½

The South Dock, which is appropriated both to import and export vessels, is 1183 yards long, with an entrance to the river at each end; both the locks, as well as that into the Blackwall Basin, being 45 feet wide, or large enough to admit ships of 1200 tons burden. At the highest tides, the depth of water in the docks is 24 feet; and the whole will contain, with ease, 600 vessels of from 250 to 500 tons. The separation of the homeward bound ships, which is of the utmost importance for preventing plunder, and giving additional security to the revenue and the merchant, was, for the first time, adopted in this establishment. The Import and Export Docks are parallel to each other, being divided by a range of warehouses, principally appropriated to the reception of rum, brandy, and other spirituous liquors. There are smaller warehouses and sheds on the quays of the Export and South Docks, for the reception of goods sent down for exportation. The warehouses for imported goods are on the four quays of the Import Dock. They are well contrived, and of great extent, being calculated to contain 160,000 hhds. of sugar, exclusively of coffee and other produce. There have been deposited, at the same time, upon the quays, under the sheds, and in the warehouses belonging to these docks, 148,563 hhds. of sugar, 70,875 casks and 433,648 bags of coffee, 35,158 puncheons of rum and pipes of Madeira wine, 14,021 logs of mahogany, 21,350 tons of logwood, &c., which have been estimated as high as £20,000,000! The whole area occupied by the docks, warehouses, &c., includes about 295 acres; and the most effectual precautions are adopted for the prevention of fire and pilfering.

This spacious and magnificent establishment was formed by subscription, the property being vested in the West India Dock Company, the affairs of which are managed by 21 directors, as a body corporate. The right of voting is vested in those shareholders only who hold £500 of the company's stock. The company's capital is £1,380,000.

The West India Docks have proved a very successful undertaking, and have been highly beneficial to the original shareholders. All the West India ships frequenting the Thames were obliged to use them for a period of 20 years from their completion. The dividend on the company's stock was limited to 10 per cent.; and after making dividends to the full amount, with the exception of the first half year, they had in 1819, an accumulated fund of nearly £400,000. But they then diminished their charges at the suggestion of the Committee of the House of Commons on the foreign trade of the country, so as to give the trade using the docks the benefit of the surplus fund, which was to be reduced to £100,000 before the 30th of January, 1826. Latterly, the company have been obliged, in consequence of the competition of other companies, to make further reductions of dividend. At present, the company's stock sells at about par.

The nearest dock-gate, at Limehouse, is about three miles from the Exchange; and the other, next Blackwall, about half a mile more. This distance has the disadvantage of increasing the expense of cartage, and of being inconvenient to the merchants and others using the docks. On

the other hand, however, ships entering the West India Docks, avoid a considerable extent of troublesome, if not dangerous navigation, that must be undertaken by those bound for the St. Katharine's and London Docks.

In almost all docks and harbors, a serious evil is felt from the constant accumulation of mud, and the consequent expense of preserving the proper depth of water. In various situations, provision has been made for scouring out or raising out mud and sand, by means of backwater, dredges, &c., according to local circumstances; but in the West India Docks, the evil has been entirely obviated. The water of the Thames is generally very muddy, and when it is admitted into the basins and docks in large quantities to replace the water lost by evaporation, leakage, locking vessels in and out, &c., the deposit is very great. All the gates of the locks point inwards, to sustain the water of the docks. As long as the water within is higher than the level of the river, those gates remain closed; but as soon as the river rises above the level of the Blackwall Basin, the gates of the outer lock are thrown open. While the gates of the two locks at the west end of the basin remain closed, the influx from the river would not be considerable; but when the tide has risen above the level of the Import and Export Docks, those gates would also be thrown open, and then the river would flow in with considerable force—the muddy water discoloring that of the docks, and of course depositing the silt or mud held in suspension. These facts show that the exclusion of the river water was the only effectual remedy for the evil; but the loss or waste of water from the docks was equal on an average to five inches over the whole surface in 24 hours, and this loss had to be supplied; and not only that, but to keep the river out, it was necessary at all times to keep the water of the docks and basins up to a higher point than that to which the river would rise at the highest spring tides. After long consideration, the following plan was matured for effecting this object:—The company's spare land on the north side of the Blackwall Basin lay below high-water mark, and there three reservoirs were formed. The two next the basin received the water from the river by a culvert with sluices, which are closed as soon as they are filled; from these the water is pumped by an engine of 36 horse power, after having had time to deposit the silt into the elevated reservoir, from whence it flows by a conduit into the basin, and thence into the dock, and in this manner the level of the whole is kept up to the highest point which can be desired, and the river Thames with its mud is no longer admitted. The great body of water in the docks is thus constantly maintained, and is at all times clear and sweet, and no mud will hereafter be deposited; great advantage arises, however, from the depth of water, which is preserved from fluctuating with the level of the neap and spring tides, as the deepest laden ship can at all times be transported—the depth throughout being from 23 to 26 feet.

**LONDON DOCKS.**—These were the next undertaking of this sort set on foot on the Thames. They are situated in Wapping, and were principally intended for the reception of ships laden with wine, brandy, tobacco, and rice. The Western Dock covers a space of above 20 acres; and the New or Eastern Dock covers about seven acres. The Tobacco Dock lies between the above, and exceeds one acre in extent, being destined solely for the reception of tobacco ships. The entire space included with-



in the outer dock wall is  $71\frac{1}{2}$  acres. The two docks, the largest and the smaller, can accommodate 800 ships. The warehouses are capacious and magnificent. The great tobacco warehouse on the north side of the Tobacco Dock, is the largest, finest, and most convenient building of its kind in the world. It is calculated to contain 24,000 hhds. of tobacco, and covers the immense space of nearly *five* acres! There is also a very large tobacco warehouse on the south side of the Tobacco Dock. These warehouses are wholly under the management of the officers of customs; the dock company having nothing whatever to do with them, save only to receive the rent accruing upon the tobacco deposited in them. The vaults are under the tobacco and other warehouses; they include an area of about  $18\frac{1}{2}$  acres, and after allowing for gangways, &c., have stowage for 56,000 pipes of wine and spirits! These docks were opened in 1805. All ships bound for the Thames, laden with wine, brandy, tobacco, and rice, (except ships from the East and West Indies,) were obliged to unload in them for the space of 21 years; but the monopoly expired in January, 1826, and the use of the docks is now optional.

The only entrances to the London Docks were, until within a few years, by the basins at Hermitage and Wapping. Since, however, another entrance has been completed from Old Shadwell Dock, through what was formerly Milkyard, to the Eastern Dock. This new entrance is three fourths of a mile lower down than Wapping entrance, and is a most material improvement.

The capital of the company amounts to £3,238,310 5s. 10d. A considerable portion of this vast sum, and of a further sum of £700,000 borrowed, were required for the purchase of the houses, about 1300 in number, that occupied the site of the docks. Notwithstanding this enormous outlay, the annual dividends have amounted to  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

The board of directors consists of 25 members, of whom the Lord Mayor, as conservator of the river Thames, is one.

**EAST INDIA DOCKS.**—These docks, situated at Blackwall, though inferior in extent to the London and West India Docks, are yet sufficiently capacious. They were originally intended for the accommodation of ships employed by the East India Company, or in the East India trade; but they are now open to vessels from all parts. There are two docks—one for ships unloading inwards, and one for those loading outwards. The Import Dock contains about 18 acres, and the Export Dock about 9 acres. The entrance basin which connects the docks with the river, contains about  $2\frac{3}{4}$  acres. The length of the entrance lock is 210 feet, the width of the gates, 48 feet clear. The depth of water in the East India Docks is never less than 23 feet; so that they can accommodate ships of greater burden than any other establishment on the river. There is attached to them a splendid quay, fronting the river, nearly 700 feet in length, with water sufficient at all times of the tide to float the largest steamers, and the Export Dock is furnished with a machine for masting and dismasting the largest ships.

These docks are situated  $3\frac{1}{2}$  miles from the Royal Exchange. The company's capital, including the cost of the city warehouses, is £623,000. The shareholders receive an annual dividend of 6 per cent, and the stock ranges considerably above par. The management is committed to twelve directors, each holding £1200 stock.

**ST. KATHARINE'S DOCKS.**—These docks are situated immediately below the Tower, and consequently are the most contiguous of any to the city, the customhouse, and other places where business is transacted. They were partially opened on the 25th of October, 1828. The capital raised by shares amounts to £1,352,800; but an additional sum of £800,000 has been borrowed on the security of the rates, for the completion of the works, and the purchase of a freehold property possessing river frontage from the Tower to the corner of Lower East Smithfield, of the value of upwards of £100,000, but not required for the immediate objects of the company. The purchase of the numerous houses that stood upon the ground occupied by the docks, proved, as in the case of the London Docks, a heavy item of expense. The space included within the outer wall is about 24 acres, nearly 11 of which are water. There are two docks, communicating by a basin, which are capable of containing from 150 to 160 ships, besides craft. The lock leading from the river is 195 feet long and 45 broad, and is crossed by a swing bridge 23 feet wide. This lock is so constructed, that ships of upwards of 600 tons burden may pass in and out three hours before high water, so that outward bound ships have the opportunity of reaching Blackwall before the tide begins to recede. The depth of water at spring tides is 28 feet in the lock, and thus ships of 600 and 800 tons burden can come up the river with a certainty of admission into the docks, as the depth of water at the entrance exceeds that of any other work of the kind in the port of London. Vessels are also docked and undocked by night as well as by day,—an advantage peculiar to this establishment. A clear channel of not less than 300 feet in width, is at all times to be kept in the pool; and vessels drawing 18 feet water, may lie afloat at low water at the principal buoy off the dock entrance.

The appearance of the St. Katharine's Docks differs in many respects from that of the other docks. Beauty and ornament have been sacrificed for utility. No spacious quays nor long ranges of warehouses are to be seen here—notwithstanding the area enclosed is 24 acres, and the place has the appearance of being crowded and confined. But the warehouses make up in height and depth whatever they are deficient in length. They are six stories high, and have vaults below which serve as extensive depositories. The ground floors of the warehouses towards the docks are 18 feet high, open, and supported by pillars,—a contrivance by which labor and space are saved, for vessels in the docks can come close to the warehouses, and discharge their cargoes directly from their holds, without it being necessary, as in the West India and London Docks, to land them on quays.

Although the St. Katharine's Docks are deficient in extent when compared with the other docks, yet the solidity of the buildings, the completeness and ingenuity of the mechanical apparatus, as well as the entire arrangements, reflect the greatest credit on the public spirit, enterprise, and skill of those by whom it was projected and executed.

For many years great jealousy and precaution were exercised at the other docks about the Thames, in the admission of strangers and visitors, who were required to procure tickets, or orders for admission from a director at the gates. But all this is now abolished—the gates of the different docks are freely open during working hours to the passing stranger, the vigilance of the gate-keepers, and of the dock constables or watchmen, being considered sufficient for the protection of the varied and valuable property within.

The number of individuals who pour out of the docks when the hour of closing them arrives, is not a little remarkable. Revenue officers, clerks, warehouse-keepers, engineers, coopers, and laborers of every grade, seem actually to block up the way. It is estimated that the average number of persons employed in the St. Katharine's, London, East and West India Docks, is about 5,000.

**COMMERCIAL DOCKS.**—Exclusive of the previously mentioned docks, all of which are on the north side of the Thames, there are on the south side the Commercial Docks, opposite to the East and West India Docks. They include a space within the outer wall, of about 49 acres, nearly 38 of which are water. They are principally intended for the reception of vessels laden with timber, corn, and other bulky commodities. They have but little accommodation for warehousing, and their establishments are not constructed so as to entitle them to bond all goods.

**DOCKS AT KINGSTON-UPON-HULL.**—It is but little more than half a century since the first of these docks was completed; before that time the river Hull below the bridge was the only safe harbor in the port, and in this narrow confined space the shipping and small craft were so crowded together, that it was often with great difficulty they could have access to the quays to take in or deliver their cargoes, and damage was sustained by the larger vessels from grounding every tide. It also sometimes happened that the harbor was incapable of containing all the shipping that frequented the port, in which case they were laden and delivered in the river Humber by means of craft, at the expense of much delay and considerable additional charges. These inconveniences, and the want of a legal quay, with the complaints they gave rise to, on the part of the revenue officers, at length led to the formation of a dock, which in time was followed by another. But, extensive and commodious as were the Old and Humber Docks, for want of a ready passage between them they were still incomplete,—the Junction Dock has perfected the communication; and instead of being surrounded as formerly, by fortified walls and deep ditches, which had latterly become stagnant pools, the common receptacles of filth and nuisance, the town is now encircled by the rivers Humber and Hull, and three spacious and commodious docks; improving the public health by the assistance afforded to drainage through the liberality of the Dock Company, and rivalling, in convenience for mercantile men, and facilities for the despatch of business, those of any port in the kingdom. These and the means of inland communication, enjoyed or in prospect, with a district peculiarly rich in minerals and manufactures, added to its situation on so noble an estuary, and its contiguity to the continent, cannot fail to maintain the eminent rank Hull has hitherto held among British ports.

An act of parliament for the construction of the Old Dock was obtained in April, 1774. At that period works of this kind were in their infancy, and we should not therefore look for the degree of perfection, either in design or execution, which has distinguished those of more recent times. By their charter, the company were allowed seven years for finishing this dock, but by great exertions the work was completed in four years, and it was opened on the 22d of September, 1778. From the ruinous state in which the lock and basin were, it became necessary to rebuild them in 1814. This lock and basin were finished and re-opened on the 13th of November, 1815.



	Length. Feet.	Breadth. Feet.	Area. Acres. Roods. Rods.			No. of Ships.
Old Dock, . . .	1703 . . .	254 . . .	9	3	29	100
Basin, . . .	213 . . .	80½ . . .	0	1	23	
			Depth of water on Sills, at			
			Neap Tides.			Spring Tides
Entrance Lock, 120½ . . .		38 . . .	14 ft.			20 ft.
Warehouses, . . .	345 . . .					
Sheds, . . .	143 . . .	23				
" . . .	492 . . .	23				

In 1802, an act of parliament was passed for the construction of the Humber Dock, and the work was begun the following year, and opened for business with due honors on the 30th of June, 1809. The expense was defrayed by the Dock Company, and the Corporation, and Trinity House jointly.

	Length. Feet.	Breadth. Feet.	Area. Acres. Roods. Rods.			No. of Ships.
Humber Dock, . . .	914 . . .	342 . . .	7	0	24	70
Basin, . . .	435 . . .	267 . . .	2	3	2	
			Depth of water on Sills, at			
			Neap Tides.			Spring Tides.
Entrance Lock, 158 . . .		42 . . .	20 ft.			26 ft.
Sheds, . . .	754 . . .	25				

By a clause in the Humber Dock act, the company were required to make a third dock whenever the shipping of the port attained a certain amount of tonnage therein specified, provided a moiety of the expense was furnished them for the purpose. Some difficulties having, however, taken place in raising the stipulated supplies, the company, impressed with the urgent necessity of making another dock, resolved, much to their honor, to execute it solely at their own expense, and the preliminary arrangements having been made, the work was begun in 1826, and was publicly opened, under the name of the Junction Dock, on the 1st of June, 1829.

	Length. Feet.	Breadth. Feet.	Area. Acres. Roods. Rods.			No. of Ships.
Junction Dock, . . .	645 . . .	407 . . .	6	0	5	60
			Depth of water on Sills, at			
			Neap Tides.			Spring Tides.
Entrance Lock, 120 . . .		36½ . . .	14 ft.			20 ft.

The rise or flow of an average spring tide at Hull, is about 21 feet at the harbor mouth, and 17 feet at the entrance to the Old Dock; that of an average neap tide, 12 feet at the harbor mouth, and 9 feet opposite the Old Dock entrance. But it may be observed, that the tides occasionally rise three to four feet higher, and sometimes, though rarely, a little more, and ebb sometimes two feet or more lower, than stated above. It may be proper to notice also, that when there are many vessels in the harbor, the ebb is not so low by nearly a foot, as when it is clear of shipping.

LIVERPOOL DOCKS.—The first wet dock in the British empire was constructed at Liverpool, in pursuance of an act of parliament, obtained in 1708. At this period Liverpool was but an inconsiderable town; and the accommodation she has derived from her docks, is one of the circumstances that has done most to promote her extraordinary increase in commerce, population, and wealth. A second wet dock was opened about the middle of the last century; and since that period many more have been constructed, some of them on a magnificent scale, and furnished with all sorts of con-

veniences. When those now in progress are completed, the total area of water will exceed 90 acres.

In spring tides, the water rises in the Mersey about 30 feet, and in neap tides about 15 feet.

The Liverpool docks are all constructed upon the estate of the Corporation, and are managed by commissioners appointed by parliament. The warehouses belong to individuals, and are private property.\*

**BUTE DOCK, &c.**—The chief other *Wet Docks*, designed for commercial purposes in Great Britain, are those situated at Goole, Leith, Hartlepoole, and Cardiff, the latter of which was constructed by the Marquis of Bute, between 1834 and 1839, at an expense of £300,000. On passing the sea-gate, where there is 17 feet of water at neap, and 32 feet at spring tides, vessels enter a capacious basin of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  acres. The main entrance lock is 152 feet long and 36 feet wide; being sufficient to admit ships of 600 tons burden. Beyond the lock is an inner basin which contains about 20 acres, calculated to accommodate in perfect safety, from 300 to 400 ships of all classes. In order to keep the channel free from deposit, a feeder from the river Taff supplies a reservoir of 15 acres, adjoining the basin. This reservoir can be discharged at low water into the basin by means of powerful sluices, at the rate of 100,000 tons of water per minute, which will produce a current sufficiently strong to free the bottom from mud, silt, and other deposits that may be formed.

**BASINS AT HAVRE.**—The harbor of Havre consists of three basins, enclosed within the walls of the town, affording accommodation for about 450 ships. From the crowded condition of the port, and the inconveniences experienced on the arrival of the great steamers, which frequent its waters, a new dock is contemplated, that will do much to promote the commercial interests of the Seine, particularly to the class of vessels above referred to. At present, all large ships are under the necessity of lying in the great road, in six or seven fathoms of water, and consequently are endangered by the severe gales that often occur on that coast. The rise of the tide is from 22 to 27 feet; and by taking advantage of it, the largest class of merchantmen enter the port. The water in the harbor does not begin perceptibly to subside till about three hours after high water,—a peculiarity ascribed to the current down the Seine, across the entrance of the harbor, being sufficiently powerful to dam up for a while the water of the latter. Large fleets, taking advantage of this circumstance, are able to leave the port in a single tide, even though the wind should be unfavorable.

**BASIN AT MARSEILLES.**—The harbor of Marseilles, the access to which is defended by several strong fortifications, is in the centre of the city, forming a basin 1050 yards in length, by about 300 in breadth. The tide is hardly sensible; but the depth of water at the entrance to the harbor varies from 16 to 18 feet. Within the basin the depth of water ranges from 12 to 24 feet, being shallowest at the north and deepest at the south side. Dredging machines are kept constantly at work to clear out the mud, which is chiefly accumulated by the wash of the city, and to prevent the harbor from filling up. Though inaccessible to the largest class of ships, Marseilles is one of the best and safest ports in the world for moderate sized merchantmen, of which it will accommodate above 1000. Ships in

\* Vide McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary.

the basin lie close alongside the quays, and there is every facility for getting them speedily loaded and unloaded.

**BASINS AT ANTWERP.**—In 1803, a new impulse was given to the commerce of Antwerp, as well as to the general prosperity of all Belgium, by an invincible decree of the great Napoleon. Three extensive basins were constructed at his order in the above-named city, sufficiently deep to admit the largest class of ships, which can penetrate the very heart of the city by means of eight canals. The harbor is safe and commodious, and will contain at one time more than 1000 ships.

**BASIN AT ALBANY, N. Y.**—On the completion of the Erie Canal, the enterprising citizens of Albany, alive to their best interests, foresaw the necessity of a dock or basin for the accommodation of their ordinary shipping as well as for the vast number of canal boats that were swarming upon them. A commodious basin was soon formed, containing about 32 acres, by means of erecting a pier 80 feet in width, along the westerly bank of the Hudson, which was laid out into lots 30 feet in front, with warehouses on the same, 50 feet deep. The pier is connected with the main shore by drawbridges, and is accessible at all times. The basin is sufficiently deep and capacious for the trade and commerce of the place, and has proved a very successful undertaking. Soon after its construction, a portion of the pier lots were sold, which afforded a profit of 16 per cent to the shareholders, exclusively of paying the first cost of the work; and the stock of the company sells at present for 55 per cent, which is equal to about 71 per cent nett gain.

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## ART. V.—LAWS RELATIVE TO DEBTOR AND CREDITOR.

### NUMBER XI.

#### MISSOURI.

It is intended in this article to give a succinct view of the laws of Missouri, on those subjects in which mercantile communities abroad, having business connections with the merchants of that state, may be likely to be interested. A careful attention to, and examination of, the information here given, may, in some instances, be of service in cases of emergency. It will be seen that, in Missouri, as far as legal enactments are concerned, the creditor is placed upon as favorable a footing as in any other state, and upon a much better one than in some states, where the laws present an *inducement* to debtors to depart from the path of strict mercantile integrity.

#### COMMON LAW.

The common law of England, and all statutes and acts of parliament, made prior to the fourth year of the reign of James the First, and which are of a general nature, not local to that kingdom, and not repugnant to, or inconsistent with the constitution of the United States, that of Missouri, or the statute laws in force for the time being, shall be the rule of action and decision in Missouri.



## BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

A written acceptance by a party or his agent, is absolutely necessary to charge him as acceptor. Such acceptance may be written on a paper other than the bill; but it will not bind the acceptor, except in favor of a person to whom such acceptance shall have been shown, and who, in faith thereof, shall have received the bill for a valuable consideration. An unconditional promise in writing to accept a bill before it is drawn, shall be deemed an actual acceptance in favor of every person to whom such written promise shall have been shown, and who, upon the faith thereof, shall have received the bill for a valuable consideration.

Damages are allowed on bills which are expressed to be *for value received*, and which are *protested* for non-acceptance or non-payment. When the bill is drawn or negotiated within this state, there shall be allowed and paid to the holder by the drawer or endorser, having due notice of the dishonor of the bill, damages in the following cases:

*First.* If the bill shall have been drawn on any person, at any place within this state, at the rate of four per cent on the principal sum specified in the bill.

*Second.* If drawn on any person, at any place out of this state, but within the United States, or the territories thereof, at the rate of ten per cent.

*Third.* If drawn on any person at any port or place without the United States, and their territories, twenty per cent.

These provisions, it will be seen, apply only to drawers and endorsers. Acceptors are liable, also, to pay damages, when the bill is drawn on them at any place within the state, in the following cases:

*First.* If drawn by any person, at any place within this state, four per cent.

*Second.* If drawn by a person at a place without this state, but within the United States, or their territories, ten per cent.

*Third.* If drawn by a person at a place without the United States, and their territories, twenty per cent.

The damages allowed, as above, are in lieu of interest, charges of protest, and other charges, incurred previous to, and at the time of giving notice, or the time when the principal sum shall become payable, when no notice of the dishonor is required to be given; and the holder of the bill is entitled to demand and receive lawful interest on the aggregate amount of the principal *and* damages, from the time notice is given, and payment of the principal sum demanded; or from the time of the non-payment of the bill by the acceptor.

## PROMISSORY NOTES.

The statutes of this state create a distinction between different kinds of promissory notes, by making a note drawn in one form negotiable, and that drawn in another form not so. This is intended to suit the mixed character of the population of the state, and is, in some respects, salutary. A simple promise to pay money or property to a person or his order, or to bearer, imports a consideration, whether expressed to be for value received or not, and is due and payable as therein expressed. Such notes are assignable, but an assignment does not deprive the maker of any defence or set-off which he may have had against the note, if it had remained in the hands of the payee.

If, however, the note be expressed on the face of it to be for value received, negotiable and payable without defalcation, it is declared to be negotiable in like manner, and to have the same effect as inland bills of exchange. This kind of note is mainly used in commercial transactions, and the relations to each other of the different parties to it are governed by the principles of mercantile law.

In the case of notes not negotiable, an assignor or endorser cannot be sued until the holder shall have used due diligence in the institution and prosecution of a suit against the maker; or unless the maker is insolvent, or is not a resident of, nor residing in the state, so that a suit would be unavailing, or could not be instituted. In a suit against an endorser of such a note, however, if the plaintiff can show that he has used due diligence in the institution and prosecution of a suit against the maker, he is not required to prove notice to the endorser of the non-payment of the note, as he is in the case of a negotiable note. Where the note is in negotiable form, it is not necessary to sue the maker before an endorser can be sued; but the holder may coerce payment from any party to the note, as in the case of a bill of exchange.

#### JUDICIAL ORGANIZATION AND JURISDICTION.

The highest judicial tribunal is the supreme court, which is composed of three judges, and holds its terms twice in every year, in each of four districts into which the state is divided. Its jurisdiction is exclusively appellate.

The circuit courts have exclusive original jurisdiction in all cases not cognizable before the county court, or justices of the peace, and appellate jurisdiction from the judgments and orders of the county courts and justices of the peace. It is held by one judge, in each county of the state, three times in the year.

The county courts have cognizance of all county business; all matters relating to the appointment and removal of executors, administrators, and guardians, and the settlement of their accounts; and before them demands against the estates of deceased persons are presented for allowance. Their decisions are subject to be reviewed by the circuit courts, either on writ of error or appeal.

The St. Louis court of common pleas is a new court, with civil jurisdiction only, which has recently been established in the city of St. Louis. It will hold four terms in a year, and will afford very great facilities in the collection of debts. It can take cognizance, originally, of actions founded on contract only.

The jurisdiction of justices of the peace extends to actions of debt, covenant, and assumpsit, and all other actions founded on contract, where the debt or balance due, or damages claimed, exclusive of interest, does not exceed ninety dollars; and to all actions founded on bonds and notes for the payment of any sum of money, not exceeding, exclusive of interest, one hundred and fifty dollars. Justices of the peace hold their courts on a given day once a month, and executions issued by them are returnable at the end of thirty days. Such executions are not a lien on the debtor's property.

#### JUDICIAL PROCESS.

*Summons.*—The ordinary process by which suits are commenced is a summons. This is issued upon a declaration being filed, and is served, either,

*First*—By reading the declaration and writ to the defendant ; or,

*Second*—By delivering him a copy of them ; or,

*Third*—By leaving a copy of them at his usual place of abode, with some white person of the family over the age of fifteen years.

But in all cases where the defendant refuses to hear the writ and declaration read to him, or to receive a copy, the offer of the officer to read them or deliver a copy, and such refusal, are sufficient service of the writ. A summons must, in any case, be served fifteen days before the first day of the term of court at which it is returnable ; but a service at any time within the fifteen days will be good for the term next succeeding that at which it is regularly returnable.

*Capias*.—This writ lies against the *body* of the debtor, and is issued only upon the plaintiff, or some person for him, making and filing with the declaration on which the suit is founded an affidavit, setting forth that the plaintiff has a subsisting and unsatisfied cause of action against the defendant,—on what account it accrued,—and that the defendant is about to remove out of this state,—or is not a resident of this state,—or that the plaintiff is or will be in danger of losing his demand, unless the *capias* be allowed, and the defendant held to bail. Where the amount of the plaintiff's demand is liquidated, it must be specified in the affidavit ; and in all cases not founded on contract, or not liquidated, the facts and circumstances upon which the demand is based must be stated in the affidavit, so as to enable the court or officer to determine the amount of bail which ought to be required of the defendant. When the affidavit states, as the ground for obtaining a *capias*, that the defendant is about to remove out of, or is not a resident of this state, it is conclusive as to the fact : but the simple statement that the plaintiff is or will be in danger of losing his demand unless a *capias* be allowed and the defendant held to bail, is not so regarded ; and the law requires the person making the affidavit, when he takes that ground, to *state the particular facts and circumstances from which the danger is inferred*, and the issuing of the *capias* depends upon whether the court or officer is satisfied from the facts stated that it ought to issue.

When the defendant is arrested under the *capias*, he can be discharged only, either, by placing himself on the prison limits ; by taking the benefit of the insolvent laws ; or by giving bail. The prison bounds are fixed by the county court, and cannot exceed the area of one half mile square, and must include the jail. The individual putting himself upon the bounds must give a bond to the sheriff, for the use of the plaintiff, with two sufficient securities, in twice the sum demanded, conditioned that he will not pass over the bounds before he is discharged by due course of law. No person can, however, remain in the prison bounds for a longer time than one year.

The provisions of the insolvent laws will be noticed under a separate head.

A person arrested under a *capias* is discharged from arrest upon his entering into recognizance to the plaintiff, before the officer charged with the execution of the writ, with sufficient securities, in a sum equal to that which the clerk or court directed ; conditioned that if judgment be given against him in the suit, he will pay the amount of the recovery, or surrender himself in execution, or that the securities will do it for him.

*Attachment*.—This writ lies against the debtor's property, and contains,



in addition to the attachment clause, a summons. It can be obtained only in the following cases :

*First*—Where the debtor is not a resident of, nor residing within, this state ; or,

*Second*—Where he conceals himself, or absents himself, or has absconded from his usual place of abode in this state, so that the ordinary process of law cannot be served upon him ; or,

*Third*—Where he is about to remove his property or effects out of this state, so as to defraud, hinder, or delay his creditors ; or,

*Fourth*—Where he has fraudulently conveyed, assigned, removed, concealed, or disposed of, or is about to convey, assign, remove, or dispose of any of his property or effects so as to defraud, hinder, or delay his creditors ; or,

*Fifth*—Where the debt was contracted out of this state, and the debtor has absconded, or secretly removed his property or effects to this state, with intent to defraud, defeat, hinder, or delay his creditors.

In order to obtain an attachment, there must be filed with the declaration an affidavit of the plaintiff, or some person for him, stating that the defendant is justly indebted to the plaintiff, after allowing all just credits and set-offs, in a sum (to be specified,) and on what account ; and, also, that the affiant has good reason to believe, and does believe, the existence of one or more of the facts, which, as above stated, would entitle the plaintiff to sue by attachment.

As the grounds for obtaining an attachment are extended, and the action of the writ very summary, the law has provided safeguards against its unjust use ; so that the *honest* debtor need have no apprehensions. The plaintiff, or some one for him, is required, before the attachment issues, to file with the declaration a bond, with sufficient security, resident householders in the county where the suit is brought, to be approved by the clerk, in double the amount of the debt sworn to, conditioned that the plaintiff shall prosecute his action without delay and with effect, and shall pay all damages which may accrue to the defendant or any garnishee, by reason of the attachment or any process or proceeding in the suit. The following is the form of the bond :

“ Know all men by these presents, that we, A. B. as principal, and C. D. as security, are held and firmly bound to the state of Missouri, in the sum of ——— dollars, for the payment of which we bind ourselves and our heirs, executors, and administrators, firmly by these presents. Sealed with our seals, and dated the ——— day of ——— 18—.

“ The condition of the above obligation is such, that, whereas the said A. B. as plaintiff, is about to institute a suit in the ——— Court, by attachment, against E. F. as defendant, returnable to the next ——— term of said court, in which the amount sworn to is ——— dollars and ——— cents. Now, if the said plaintiff shall prosecute his action, without delay and with effect, and shall pay all damages which may accrue to the defendant or any garnishee, by reason of the attachment, or any process or proceeding in said suit, then this obligation to be void, otherwise to remain in full force.”

It will be seen that the defendant thus has recourse against the plaintiff, in any case where an unjust or malicious use is made of the writ of attachment. In aid of this, and to avoid the evils which might be inflicted by false swearing, in order to obtain an attachment, the defendant is allowed

to deny, by plea, the truth of the affidavit on which the attachment issued. The question raised by this denial is settled by a jury, before that of the indebtedness of the defendant is tried. If the jury find that the affidavit, when made, was true, the case proceeds; if, on the other hand, they find it not true, the suit is dismissed, at the plaintiff's cost, and the defendant has his remedy on the plaintiff's bond for damages.

#### JUDGMENTS.

The judgments of the circuit and county courts are liens on the real estate of the person against whom they are rendered, situate in the county for which the court is held. The lien commences on the day of the rendition of the judgment, and continues for three years, subject to be revived by *scire facias*. The sale of lands under a junior judgment passes the title of the defendant, subject to the lien of all prior judgments or decrees then in force.

#### EXECUTIONS.

These are of two kinds,—against the property of the defendant, and against his property and body. The latter are not issued unless specially ordered. They are, from the time of their delivery to the officer to be executed, liens on his slaves, goods, chattels, and shares in stocks, in the county in which they are held by the officer.

The following property is exempt from execution when owned by a person who is not the head of a family:

*First.* Wearing apparel.

*Second.* The necessary tools and implements of trade of any mechanic, whilst carrying on his trade.

The following property, when owned by the head of a family, is exempt:

*First.* One work-horse, mule, or yoke of oxen, not exceeding the value of forty dollars; one cow and calf, one plough, one axe, one hoe, and one set of plough gears.

*Second.* The spinning wheels and cards, one loom and apparatus, necessary for manufacturing cloth in a private family.

*Third.* All the spun yarn, thread, and cloth, manufactured for family use.

*Fourth.* Any quantity of hemp, flax, and wool, not exceeding twenty-five pounds of each.

*Fifth.* All wearing apparel of the family, two beds, with the usual bedding, and such other household and kitchen furniture, not exceeding the value of twenty-five dollars, as may be necessary for the family, agreeably to an inventory thereof, to be returned on oath, with the execution, by the officer whose duty it may be to levy the same.

*Sixth.* The necessary tools and implements of trade of any mechanic, while carrying on his trade.

*Seventh.* All arms and military equipments required by law to be kept.

*Eighth.* All such provisions as may be on hand for family use, not exceeding twenty-five dollars in value.

#### DEMANDS AGAINST ESTATES.

As before remarked, demands against the estates of deceased persons, are presented before the county courts. As they are allowed, they are classed in seven classes, as follows:

*First.* Funeral expenses.

*Second.* Expenses of the last sickness, wages of servants, and demands for medicine and medical attendance during the last sickness of the deceased.

*Third.* Debts due to the state.

*Fourth.* Judgments rendered against the deceased.

*Fifth.* All demands, without regard to quality, which shall be legally exhibited for allowance against the estate, within *one* year after granting the first letters on the estate.

*Sixth.* All such demands, thus exhibited, after the expiration of one year, and within *two* years after letters are granted.

*Seventh.* All such demands, thus exhibited, after the expiration of two years, and within *three* years after the grant of such letters.

In paying demands against estates, the administrator must commence with the first class, paying all demands in that class, before he proceeds to the next, and so on down ; so that no part of any demand is paid until all in previous classes are satisfied.

Every person presenting a demand against an estate, must either appear in the court, and make, or must attach to his demand, an affidavit, that, to the best of his knowledge and belief, he has given credit to the estate of the deceased for all payments and off-sets to which it is entitled, on the demand exhibited, and that the balance claimed is justly due. This affidavit will *not be any evidence of the claimant's demand*, but it is, nevertheless, indispensable ; and no claim, unaccompanied by it, can be allowed against an estate.

#### STATUTE OF LIMITATIONS.

The only provisions of this act, to which it is considered necessary to advert here, are those which affect mercantile transactions. Those provisions are as follows :

All actions of debt founded on any writing, whether sealed or unsealed, and all actions of assumpsit founded on any writing for the direct payment of money, must be commenced within *ten* years after the cause of such action accrued, and not after. All actions of debt founded on any contract or liability other than a writing, and which are not brought upon any judgment or decree of any court, and all actions of assumpsit not otherwise specially limited, must be commenced within *five* years after the cause of action accrued. All actions on open accounts for goods, wares, and merchandise sold and delivered, and all actions for any article in a store account, must be commenced within *two* years after the cause of action accrued. If any person entitled to bring any of these actions, be, at the time the cause of action accrued, either within the age of twenty-one ; or insane ; or imprisoned on a criminal charge, or in execution under a sentence of a criminal court, for a less term than his natural life ; or a married woman ; such person shall be at liberty to bring such action within the respective times, after such disability is removed.

The statute does not run in favor of a person out of this state, until his return into the state ; and if a person depart from and reside out of the state, the time of his absence shall not be taken as any part of the time limited for the commencement of the action. If a person by absconding or concealing himself, or by any other improper act of his own, prevent the commencement of any action, such action may be commenced within



the time limited after the time that the commencement of it shall have ceased to be so prevented.

INSOLVENCY.

Any debtor imprisoned, or liable to be imprisoned, for debt, may make application to any judge of the supreme court, or judge of the circuit court, or justice or clerk of the county court of the county in which he may be, offering to deliver, to the use of his creditors, all his property, (wearing apparel for himself and family excepted,) and praying to be permitted to take the benefit of the act for the relief of insolvent debtors. He must annex to and deliver with his petition to the officer to whom it is presented, a schedule containing—

*First*—A full and true account of all his creditors.

*Second*—The place of residence of each creditor, if known to the debtor, and if not, the fact to be stated.

*Third*—The sum owing to each creditor, and the nature of each debt or demand, whether arising on written security, on account, or otherwise.

*Fourth*—The true cause and consideration of indebtedness in each case, and the place where the indebtedness accrued.

*Fifth*—A statement of any existing judgment, mortgage, or collateral or other security for the payment of any such debt.

*Sixth*—A full and true inventory of all the estate, real, personal, and mixed, in law and equity, of the debtor; of the incumbrances existing thereon, and of all the books, vouchers, and securities relating thereto.

The petitioning debtor, upon making oath that the account of his creditors and the inventory of his estate which are annexed to his petition are in all respects just and true; that he has not at any time, or in any manner whatsoever, disposed of or made over any part of his estate for the future benefit of himself, or his family, or in order to defraud any of his creditors; that he has in no instance credited or acknowledged a debt for a greater sum than he honestly and truly owed; and that he has not paid, secured to be paid, or in any way compounded with any of his creditors, with a view fraudulently to take the benefit of the insolvent act; and complying with certain provisions of the law; receives from the officer to whom he applies a discharge from arrest and imprisonment, until the end of the term of the circuit court next to be holden in the county in which the discharge is given, after the expiration of six weeks from the date of the order of discharge. The debtor must then publish in a newspaper for four weeks a notice that he intends to apply to the circuit court of the county in which he is discharged, for a final hearing and discharge. At the time set in the notice, if no opposition is offered, he is finally discharged.

CONVEYANCES.

All instruments of writing, conveying, or affecting real estate situate in this state, executed *out of the state*, must be acknowledged or proved before some court of the United States, or of a state, or territory, having a seal, or the clerk of any such court. It is in all cases necessary that the grantor should be *personally known* to the tribunal or officer taking his acknowledgment, (or, if the court be composed of several judges, to *one* of them,) or should be proven to be the same person described in the conveyance, by *two* credible witnesses. The following forms, embracing cases of most usual occurrence, should be accurately followed.

*Acknowledgment by grantor alone.*

State of — }  
 County of — } ss. Be it remembered, that on this — day of —  
 before the — court of — in the county and state aforesaid, (or before  
 me — clerk of the — court of — in the county and state afore-  
 said,) came A. B., who is personally known to the court (or to me) or (is  
 proved by the testimony of C. D. and E. F. two credible witnesses, ex-  
 amined on oath,) to be the same person whose name is subscribed to the  
 foregoing instrument of writing as a party thereto, and acknowledged the  
 same to be his act and deed for the purposes therein mentioned.

[L.S.] In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and the seal  
 of said court the day and year in this behalf above written.

A. B., Clerk.

*Acknowledgment by grantor and wife, with relinquishment of dower.*

"State of — }  
 County of — } ss. Be it remembered, that on this — day of —,  
 before (as above) came A. B. and C. B. his wife, who are both personally  
 known (or as above) to be the same persons whose names are subscribed  
 to the foregoing instrument as parties thereto, and severally acknowledged  
 the same to be their act and deed for the purposes therein mentioned.  
 She, the said C. B., having been made acquainted with the contents of  
 said conveyance, acknowledged, on an examination apart from her said hus-  
 band, that she executed the said conveyance, and relinquishes her dower  
 in the real estate therein mentioned, freely and without compulsion or un-  
 due influence of her said husband. In witness whereof, &c."

Real estate belonging to the wife can be conveyed by deed executed by  
 herself and her husband, and duly acknowledged. The acknowledgment  
 in such case is the same as the second form given above, except that the  
 words, "*and relinquishes her dower in the real estate therein mentioned,*"  
 must be omitted. This acknowledgment must be taken *before a court*;  
 if taken before a clerk, it will not answer.

A power of attorney for the execution of a deed conveying or affecting  
 land, must be acknowledged or proved in the same manner as the deed  
 itself would be, if executed by the party.

## ASSIGNMENTS.

Until within the past year, assignments which required the creditor to  
 become a party and sign a release within a given time, before he could re-  
 ceive any benefit under them, were considered in this state to be good.  
 In May last, however, the supreme court, after full argument and a labored  
 investigation of the whole subject, declared such assignments to be void  
 against attaching creditors.

## AFFIDAVITS.

Affidavits, made out of this state, to be used in any of its courts, must  
 be subscribed by the affiant, and sworn to before a judge of a court of  
 record, whose official character must be attested by a certificate under the  
 hand of the clerk and the seal of the court.

## ART. VI.—THE SUFFOLK BANK SYSTEM.

WE will briefly state its *character*, and then also briefly shows its *operation*, which, we believe, is beneficial both to the banks and to the community at large.

1. *Its character*.—In behalf of an association of banks in Boston, including all reputed to be sound, the Suffolk Bank receives, at par, the bills of all the banks of New England, on the following conditions, to wit: Each bank shall deposit, in specie, in the Suffolk Bank, a certain sum, on which no interest shall be allowed, which shall remain during the arrangement, and before drawing out which, fifteen days notice shall be given.

The banks shall keep in deposit at the Suffolk Bank, a sum sufficient to meet so much of their circulation as may be redeemed by the Suffolk; or, in technical language, they “shall keep their account good;” and interest shall be calculated, for each day, on whatever balance there may be against the banks; by which mode the Suffolk receives, on their accounts, a rate of interest which is more than six, perhaps seven or eight per cent per annum: and if a bank neglects to keep its account good, it shall be liable, at any moment, to be stricken off.

2. *Its operation*.—Boston, being the centre of business in the New England states, may claim to control the exchanges within these states. The balance of trade, too, between Boston and other places in New England, is unquestionably in favor of Boston. It will be seen, then, that Boston, on the general scale, is not obliged to make remittances to other parts of the states, but that, on the contrary, they must make their remittances to Boston. It follows, therefore, that, while Boston bills are at par all over New England, the bills of other places must be at a discount in Boston, equal, at least, to the expense incurred in getting the bills to the banks whence they are issued for specie or its equivalent, and bringing the funds back to Boston.

The question now presents itself: *Is the difference of exchange between Boston and other places in New England less than the expense attending the arrangement with the Suffolk Bank?* To settle this question, an appeal should be made to facts. A bank with a capital of \$100,000, for instance, is required to deposit in the Suffolk Bank the sum of \$3,000, the interest on which, at six per cent per annum, is \$180. By a law of Maine—and the law in this respect is pretty uniform in all the New England states—such a bank may put in circulation its own bills to the amount of seventy-five per centum of its capital stock. The average circulation of sound banks, however, having a capital of \$100,000, does not exceed \$50,000, and the average redemption by the Suffolk Bank is about \$10,000 a month, or \$120,000 a year. The bank is at the expense and risk of remitting this sum of 120,000 every year in order to redeem its circulation; which expense and risk may be stated at one quarter of one per centum, or the sum of \$300. Other expenses, incidental to the arrangement, are, perhaps, \$120 more; making the whole annual expense of redeeming at the Suffolk Bank, to a bank with a capital of \$100,000, the sum of \$600. On the other hand, the *average* rate of exchange, between Boston and other places in New England, being not less than one half of one per cent, will give on \$120,000, the precise sum of \$600; which amount, in one shape or another, must be borne by the bank not redeeming at the Suf-



folk Bank. That it must be borne by the bank may be illustrated in this way: You live in Augusta, for example, and intend to go to Boston to buy goods. You want \$2,000. You apply for a discount. The bank pays out its own bills. These bills being at a discount in Boston, you will not carry them there and suffer a loss of \$10; so you present them at the bank for Boston bills, or specie; and this shows that a bank must be prepared for such drafts, by keeping a surplus quantity of specie, or Boston funds, constantly on hand. So that, as the question now stands, there is *no loss* to the bank redeeming at Boston. But the bank is greatly benefited by the arrangement, in its increased circulation, and in not being compelled to keep in its vaults so large an amount of specie as it otherwise would; for the fact of its bills being current in Boston inspires confidence in the soundness of the bank, and its bills are consequently less liable to be presented for specie by their holders.

In regard to the public, the system is safer than redemption at home, as it prevents an undue expansion of issues. A bank disposed to be fraudulent may, indeed, enlarge its issues, and then fail, leaving the public to suffer, whether redeeming at the Suffolk Bank or not; so that it must be admitted, the system furnishes little or no security against fraud. But, with no design to defraud the public, a bank may, nevertheless, very much increase its circulation contrary to good judgment and sound policy; and, while receiving no immediate check from the holders of bills who live at remote distances from the bank, and hold the bills in small parcels, it may yet jeopardize its own interest as well as that of the public. The sum of the matter seems to be this, that, while the expense of redeeming at Boston is no greater than it would be at the counters of the several banks, the safety to the public is greatly increased, and the trouble of looking into the condition of the banks by the people themselves, almost entirely avoided by the adoption of the Suffolk Bank system.

## MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

### RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.\*

*United States District Court.—Mass. District.—Frederick Tudor vs. Ship Eagle and owners.*—This was a libel against the ship *Eagle*, for the value of a cargo of ice shipped on board of her by libellant, in January, 1840, and valued in the bills of lading at between two and three thousand dollars, and destined to the island of Jamaica. It appeared from the evidence that within twenty-four hours after leaving port, the ship sprung a leak, which continued to increase, until, for the purpose of lightening her and getting at the leak, a portion of the cargo was thrown overboard. But the leak still continuing, the ship was put away for Bermuda, where she arrived in about seven days from the time of her departure; and it being impossible to store the ice, or otherwise preserve it, while she underwent repairs, the residue of it was thrown overboard.

In behalf of the libellant, it was contended that there is always an implied warranty on the part of the owners that the vessel is tight, staunch, and seaworthy, and fit for the voyage; and when, without any extraordinary occur-

\* Reported for the Merchants' Magazine, by A. C. Spooner, Esq., Counsellor at Law, Boston, Mass.

rence, she springs a leak immediately after leaving port, it is for the owner to prove her seaworthiness at the inception of the voyage. The defendant maintained that the leak was caused by stress of weather such as might have produced the consequences proved, even to a seaworthy vessel.

It appeared that the *Eagle* was an eastern built vessel and fifteen years old; and the opinion of experts was given that the log-book did not show any remarkable stress of weather, such as ought not to have been expected at the season of the year in which the voyage was undertaken.

Judge Davis sustained the positions taken by the libellant, and decided that the vessel was unseaworthy at the commencement of the voyage, and the libellant was entitled to recover the value of the cargo: and a decree was entered accordingly.

*Fairchild et al. vs. Ship Aurelius.*—This was a libel for seamen's wages. The libellant Fairchild was second mate, and the other libellant steward of the ship on a voyage from Richmond to Havre, and a final port of discharge in the United States. The ship performed her voyage to Havre, and there cleared for Richmond, Va., but experiencing heavy weather, and having carried away her mainmast, fore and mizzen topmasts, and sustained other damages, put away for Boston, where she arrived on the ninth of June, and the crew all left.

The defence was, that the voyage was not terminated, this being a port of distress merely, and not a port of discharge; and that a libel would not lie until the libellants had performed the contract on their part. The court sustained these positions, held that the libel was premature, and ordered it to be dismissed.

#### RECENT DECISIONS OF THE SUPREME COURT OF MASSACHUSETTS.

##### LETTER OF CREDIT—LEX LOCI CONTRACTUS.

*D. Carnegie et al. vs. Morrison, Cryder, & Co.*—This was an action brought to recover damages for the non-acceptance of bills drawn by the plaintiffs on the defendants pursuant to the following letter of credit:

"Boston, March 4, 1837.

MESSRS. MORRISON, CRYDER, AND CO., London.

Mr. John Bradford, of this city, having requested that a credit may be opened with you for his account in favor of Messrs. D. Carnegie & Co., of Gottenburg, for three thousand pounds sterling, I have assured him that the same will be accorded by you to that amount on the usual terms and conditions.

Respectfully, your obedient servant,

For £3000.

FRANCIS J. OLIVER."

Chief-justice Shaw, delivering the opinion of the court, said, it was admitted that Mr. Oliver was the general and authorized agent of the defendants, residing in Massachusetts, and that the letter of credit was given for valuable consideration. Upon this letter of credit the action must be maintained, if at all. The questions then were—1st, whether this letter amounted to a contract, and between whom, and who might avail themselves of it, and against whom; and 2d, by what law its terms were to be construed—that of Massachusetts or that of England. And the court were of opinion that the letter did amount to a contract; and having been made in Massachusetts, by the authorized agent of the defendants here, who assured Mr. Bradford that a credit for £3000 would be opened by them in favor of the plaintiffs, it was to be construed by the laws of Massachusetts, where it was made, and not by those of England, where the defendants reside, or of Sweden, the residence of the plaintiffs.

As to the question, whether the present plaintiffs could maintain an action upon this contract between the agent of the defendants and Mr. Bradford, to which they were not parties, or even privy at the time it was entered into, the court held that the settled law of Massachusetts would establish a priority and imply a promise in favor of the plaintiffs in a case of this nature, the credit having been obtained for their benefit; as in a case where money is paid by

A. to B. for the use of C., C. may maintain his action against B. They therefore ordered judgment to be entered for the plaintiffs, for the amount of the letter of credit and interest.

**MARINE INSURANCE.—JETTISON OF GOODS CARRIED ON DECK.**

In the Court of Queen's Bench, London, Dec. 19, 1840. *Milward vs. Hibbert*.—This was an action brought upon a time policy of assurance, effected upon the Kilkenny steamer, from November 28th, 1837, to November 28th, 1838. This vessel traded between Waterford and London, and her cargoes consisted chiefly of cattle and pigs, the latter of which were always stowed on deck, the vessel having been built and fitted for that express purpose. On one of her trips, in 1838, she met with very boisterous weather, and became in great danger. The captain, in order to save her, found it necessary to throw overboard her deck cargo, consisting of upwards of 700 pigs. The owner of these pigs then proceeded against the present plaintiff, who was the owner of the vessel, to recover contribution for the average loss, in the Court of Exchequer, in Ireland; and the plaintiff brought the present action against the underwriters, to recover the sum which he had been compelled to make to the owner of the pigs. The defendant pleaded, first, that the pigs were not thrown overboard; second, that where goods on deck were thrown overboard they were not subject to a general average; and, thirdly, that, by the custom of London, the underwriters were not liable to the loss of a deck cargo, unless it was specially insured. The Attorney-general for the defendant admitted, that the first issue, as to the pigs having been thrown overboard, must be found for the plaintiff. Sir William Follett, for the plaintiff, did not dispute that this had been the custom with reference to sailing vessels, and that underwriters were not liable to contribute upon a general average. Where a part of a cargo was thrown overboard, the owner of the ship was bound to contribute, and he could recover his contribution from the underwriters upon the vessel. In this instance, therefore, the plaintiff, having been compelled to make contribution, now called upon the defendants to indemnify him; if the underwriters were not liable, the owner of the ship was not liable, but the Court of Exchequer in Ireland had decided that he was liable. This was the case of a steam vessel, and it was the usage on steam vessels, to stow the live-stock on deck. The custom, therefore, applying to sailing vessels did not apply to steamers. Lord Denman, in summing up, observed, that it was denied that the captain had thrown the pigs overboard for the preservation of the ship. The question for the jury was, whether the custom set up by the defendant did in fact exist; but, if they considered the usage of a particular trade to stow on deck was proved, that would form an exception to the custom. If such a usage existed, the underwriters were bound to know it.

**ACTION ON THE BILL OF LADING; CUSTOM OF RUSSIA.**

In the English Court of Exchequer, an action was recently brought by *Dumas vs. Harland*, for not accepting 1,600 quarters of foreign wheat, alleged by the plaintiff to have been sold by him to the defendant in August last. From the evidence of Mr. Westhorpe, a broker, it appeared that the wheat in question being expected by him to arrive shortly from Taganrog, a Russian port in the Black Sea, he sold the same to the plaintiff for his correspondents, and that he shortly afterward resold the same to the defendant for a Mr. Gorsen, on the 19th of August, at the rate of 50s. per quarter, in the presence of Mr. Parsall, another broker of the Corn-Exchange. On the part of the defendant it was contended as an excuse for the non-acceptance of the wheat on its arrival, that there had been a misrepresentation on the part of Mr. Westhorpe as to the date of the bill of lading, by reason of which he had misled the defendant into a belief that that document was dated the 3d of July according to the new style, whereas in truth, as was the custom of Russia, the date was of the old style, and was, in fact, the "14th of July," by which a material difference arose in the



value of wheat intended for importation into England. Under these circumstances, the main struggle to-day was between the evidence of Mr. Westhorpe for the plaintiff, and that of Messrs. Gorsen and Parsall for the defendant, the former denying that he had done more than say, that he believed or thought that the date of the bill of lading was according to the new style, and positively asserting that he had never guaranteed the defendant to that effect; while, on the other hand, the defendant's witnesses, admitting much that Mr. Westhorpe had said, added thereto that particular inquiries were made as to the real date, and that furthermore that gentleman had attached to the sold note a memorandum to the effect that "the bill of lading was dated the 3d of July, 1840," before the contract had been perfected by the interchange of the bought and sold notes between the brokers. This statement, however, Mr. Westhorpe met by saying that the memorandum in question was not written by him till after the delivery of the notes, and was not intended by him to be a part of the contract, or to operate in any way as a guarantee of the fact that the date was according to the English computation, but simply of the fact that the date was so expressed in the bill of lading. The jury found for the plaintiff for the full amount claimed, which was upwards of £3,000.

#### DAMAGES ON PROTESTED BILLS OF EXCHANGE.\*

**MAINE.**—Payable out of the state, and in New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut or New York, 3 per cent; in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia or District of Columbia, 5 per cent; in North Carolina, South Carolina or Georgia, 6 per cent; at any other place in the United States or Territories, 9 per cent; at any place out of the United States or Territories, 10 per cent; payable within the state, at not less than 75 miles distance, in sums of \$100 and over, 1 per cent.

**NEW HAMPSHIRE.**—[In this state there is no existing statute regulation on the subject. The usual practice has been to charge the rate of damages existing at the point where the bill was payable.]

**VERMONT.**—[No statute regulation on this subject exists in this state. The practice has been similar to that in New Hampshire.]

**MASSACHUSETTS.**—Payable out of the United States, except beyond the Cape of Good Hope, 5 per cent; beyond the Cape, 20 per cent; in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York, 2 per cent; in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, 3 per cent; in Virginia, District of Columbia, Georgia, and North and South Carolina, 4 per cent; elsewhere in the United States or Territories, 5 per cent. Within the state, not less than 75 miles distant, in sums not less than \$100, one per cent.

**RHODE ISLAND.**—Payable without the United States, 10 per cent; within the United States, and out of Rhode Island, 5 per cent.

**CONNECTICUT.**—Payable in the city of New York, 2 per cent; in New Hampshire, Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New York, (out of the city,) New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, or District of Columbia, 3 per cent; in North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, or Ohio, 5 per cent; in any other State or Territory, 8 per cent.

**NEW YORK.**—Payable in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, or District of Columbia, 3 per cent; in North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, or Tennessee, 5 per cent; at any other place in the United States, or on this continent north of the equator, or the West Indies, or elsewhere in the West Atlantic Ocean, 10 per cent; in Europe, 10 per cent.

\* As regulated by the laws of the different states.

**NEW JERSEY.**—[There are no statute regulations on this subject in New Jersey.]

**PENNSYLVANIA.**—Payable out of this state, in the United States or Territories, except Louisiana, 5 per cent; in Louisiana, or any other state in North America, or the Islands thereof, except the Northwest coast of America and Mexico, or in any of the West India or Bahama Islands, 10 per cent; in Madeira, the Canaries, the Azores, the Cape de Verds, the Spanish Main or Mexico, 15 per cent; in any place in Europe or the islands thereof, 20 per cent; at any other place in the world, 25 per cent.

**DELAWARE.**—Payable at any place within the United States or Territories, out of Delaware, 5 per cent; at any place in Europe, 20 per cent.

**MARYLAND.**—Payable without the state, and at any place in the United States, or Territories thereof, 8 per cent; in any foreign country, 15 per cent.

**VIRGINIA.**—Payable out of the state, at any place within the United States or Territories, 3 per cent; in any foreign country, 15 per cent.

**NORTH CAROLINA.**—Payable in any of the United States except Louisiana, 6 per cent; at any other place in North America, on the Northwest Coast, in the West Indies or Bahama Islands, 10 per cent; in Madeira, the Canaries, the Azores, Cape de Verds, or other place in Europe or South America, 15 per cent; in any other part of the world, 20 per cent.

**SOUTH CAROLINA.**—Payable within the United States at any place out of South Carolina, 10 per cent; in any other part of North America, or the West India Islands, 12½ per cent; in any other part of the world, 15 per cent.

**GEORGIA.**—Payable in any part of the United States or Territories out of Georgia, 5 per cent; at any place without the United States, 10 per cent.

**ALABAMA.**—Payable out of the state, and at any place within the United States or Territories, 10 per cent; in any place beyond the United States, 20 per cent.

**MISSISSIPPI.**—Payable at any place out of the state, within the United States, 5 per cent; at any place out of the United States or Territories, 10 per cent.

**LOUISIANA.**—Payable at any place out of the state, within the United States or Territories, 5 per cent; at any place without the United States, 10 per cent.

**TENNESSEE.**—Payable without the state at any place in the United States or Territories, 3 per cent; in any other place in North America, on the Gulf of Mexico, or West India Islands, 15 per cent; in other parts of the world, 20 per cent.

**KENTUCKY.**—On foreign bills, 10 per cent damages are allowed. On inland bills, damages are governed by the law of the place.

**OHIO.**—Payable at any place without the United States, 12 per cent; within the United States at any place out of Ohio, 6 per cent.

**INDIANA.**—Payable at any place without the United States, 10 per cent; at any place within the United States out of Indiana, 5 per cent. Drawer or endorser not liable for damages, if paid at maturity, with costs.

**ILLINOIS.**—Payable at any place without the United States, 10 per cent; at any point within the United States, and out of Illinois, 5 per cent.

**MISSOURI.**—Payable at any place within the state, 4 per cent; out of the state, and within the United States, 10 per cent; at any place out of United States or Territories, 20 per cent.

**MICHIGAN.**—[No statute regulation has as yet been adopted in this state.]

**ARKANSAS.**—Payable at any place within the state, 2 per cent; in Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, or at any place on the Ohio river, 4 per cent; in any other place in the United States or Territories, 5 per cent; at any place out of the United States, 10 per cent; together with costs and interest at the rate of 10 per cent per annum.

**FLORIDA.**—Same as the state of Alabama.

**WISCONSIN.**—Payable at any place without the United States, 20 per cent; out of the Territory, adjoining the same within the United States, 5 per cent; in the United States not adjoining the Territory, 10 per cent.

**IOWA.**—The same as in the Territory of Wisconsin.

**DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.**—[The rates established in Maryland and Virginia, are charged on protested bills in the District.]

In Europe, damages on protested bills of exchange, are what will enable the holder to purchase a new bill, at the current rate of exchange, together with interest and all charges, such as protest, postages, and commissions.

There is no general law in the United States on the subject; and damages are regulated by statute in the different states, varying in some instances widely, as will be seen by the preceding table.

The amount due and damages are usually calculated after the rate of exchange where the bill is returned, and not on the face of it; unless the contents of the bill are expressed in federal money, in which case the damages are ascertained without reference to the rate of exchange.

## THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*A Treatise on the Rights and Duties of Merchant Seamen, according to the general maritime law, and the statutes of the United States.* By GEORGE TICKNOR CURTIS, of the Boston bar. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1841.

The author of this treatise is already favorably known to the profession of the law, by a thorough, accurate, and well-arranged Admiralty Digest, an indispensable work in the library of every practitioner in a commercial city, and by a collection of neat forms in conveyancing. The present work is divided into five parts. The first part, subdivided into five chapters, treats of the professional and national character of merchant seamen, of the general nature of the mariner's contract, the parties to it, its various forms, with a full examination into the forms and construction of shipping articles. The second part, consisting of five chapters, treats of the respective office and authority of the master and mate in relation to the crew and passengers, of the law regulating the subsistence of mariners, and the care of them in sickness, of offences against the discipline and economy of the ship, and the public law, and of the discharge of seamen. The third part, divided into four chapters, is devoted to an examination of the master's relation to the vessel and its owners, the cargo and the freight, and to the subject of his wages, disbursements, and advances. The fourth part, consisting of three chapters, is occupied with the subject of wages, and especially of the time within which their payment may be demanded and enforced, of the extent to which they are affected by the various casualties and interruptions to which a voyage is liable, and of the principles of forfeiture applicable to them. The fifth part, containing three chapters, is occupied with a discussion of the rights and remedies of mariners for their wages, and for damages in personal torts, and of the admiralty and common law jurisdiction in mariners' cases. An appendix is added, containing some curious and copious extracts from the records of the vice admiralty court for the province of Massachusetts Bay, various forms of shipping articles, and the statutes of the United States relating to ships, navigation, and seamen.

From the above abstract, it will be seen how extensive a range of subjects has been embraced by Mr. Curtis, and with what judiciousness he has arranged and disposed of his materials. The manner in which he has executed the details of his work leaves nothing to be desired. His ample outline has been filled up with great fulness and great accuracy. The capacious store of English and American learning, the decisions of the various courts, and the enactments of legislatures, have been examined, for authorities and illustrations, with minute industry and unflinching sagacity. Nor has the author confined himself within the pale of the English tongue, notwithstanding the high rank of those who speak it, in maritime affairs, nor has he disdained to make use of the rich stores



of learning and good sense, found in the codes, enactments, and treatises of continental Europe. The laws of Oleron, of Rhodes, and Wisburg, the *Consolato del Mare*, the French Ordinances, the writings of Pothier and Valic, are not less familiar to him than the judgments of Lord Stowell and Mr. Justice Story, and the work of Lord Tenterden. We are not aware of any source of information which has escaped our author's diligent researches. He has presented the result of his careful investigations in a luminous, succinct, and accurate shape, which gives to each subject its due prominence and fair proportion. Nor is his work a mere digest of adjudged cases. He has fairly applied his mind to his task. He has evidently reflected carefully upon the subjects which came under his consideration, and sought to discover the principle upon which the cases are made to rest; and in doubtful questions, has not hesitated to state frankly his own opinion and the reasons upon which it is founded. The style of the work is flowing, easy, and graceful, showing the writer to be a person of general cultivation, and accustomed to literary composition. A pervading tone of good sense and correct feeling runs through it, giving indication that the author has not studied the subject exclusively in the solitude of his office, but has been practically acquainted with it, and has seen how the system works in courts and in every-day life. In short, he has evidently practised maritime law, as well as studied it.

To the legal profession this work is a valuable gift. It supersedes and renders comparatively useless other works upon the same subject, and contains all that the practitioner can be likely to want. To every lawyer who lives within the region embraced by the ebb and flow of the sea, we should consider it nothing less than indispensable. And notwithstanding its stores of legal learning, it is written in so plain and perspicuous a style, that there is no part of it which would not be perfectly intelligible to a non-professional reader, and on this account it may be recommended to the intelligent merchant and shipmaster, as an excellent manual for reference and consultation. We cannot dismiss the work without a word of praise for its beautiful exterior. The type and paper are of the very best quality, and its whole appearance reflects the highest credit upon the taste and enterprise of the publishers.

2.—*Lectures on the History of Literature, ancient and modern, from the German of FREDERICK SCHLEGEL.* New York: J. & H. G. Langley. 12mo. pp. 392.

The present age is characterized not more by the increased regard paid to the study of literature, than it is by the improved systems devised for its successful cultivation. Formerly we had to wade through ponderous tomes of learned lore, as ill-digested as they were cumbrous, devolving on the student the laborious task of extracting from the accumulated heaps whatever might be found to profit or to please. By our modern improved methods, however, we are spared this labor, and in nearly every department of literature and science, we have ready to our hand, all the vast stores of knowledge, so admirably arranged as to be available for immediate use. The benefits arising from this labor-saving process are indeed a desideratum for those engaged in commercial pursuits, who have to economize time; and it must be equally acceptable to the general student, in facilitating reference and in imparting to it more distinct and permanent impressions. One of the most valuable works of this class is the above, which, as a synoptical work on the subject of which it treats, is unquestionably to be regarded as one of the most valuable and complete. It is needless to bespeak for a work from the pen of Schlegel, the favorable opinions of the reading community; and assuredly no person of literary taste can remain insensible to its *intrinsic* value. The translation, which is attributed to the accomplished pen of J. G. Lockhart, Esq., is indeed a master-piece, and well worthy of his scholastic reputation. It is only necessary to add, that to this American edition is appended an original Index, which of course imparts to the work additional value. The typographical part of the work is creditable to the taste and enterprise of the publishers.

- 3.—*The Works of William E. Channing, D. D.* First complete American edition, with an Introduction. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1841. 5 vols. 12mo.

Little need be said at this day to recommend to public notice the works of this distinguished writer. One who already stands so high as to be placed by foreign critics at the head of American authors; whose writings, despite of all sectarian prejudices, are found on the tables and shelves of prelates and preachers, at home and abroad, of very different theological views from his own; and who is daily exercising, through those writings, a vast influence upon the minds of all who willingly or unwillingly find themselves made to think; such an one needs no commendation of ours. The character of our journal, too, forbids an extended review of works of this class especially. But this beautiful edition, presenting a complete series of Dr. Channing's writings, revised and edited by himself, and prefaced by an original introduction from his own pen, demands of us a brief notice. We wish to congratulate the lovers of free and manly thought, of a rich, strong, and vigorous style, pure from all barbarous admixture of German, or any other affectation, of a noble and high-souled hopefulness for his race breathing itself on every page, that at the most moderate charge these volumes are offered them. We were almost ready to say that the books are too cheap, and we happen to know that the trade generally think so; but we check ourselves from any complaint on that score, inasmuch as there is the better prospect that they will be the more extensively bought and read. Some of Dr. C.'s writings have already become classic in our own language; and his more recent ones show no diminution of power. It is the intention of the publishers, whenever more are produced by him sufficient to fill another volume, to issue it in exact conformity with this edition. We sincerely hope that the necessity for so doing will early arise. We know nothing more desirable in our national literature, than the fullest contributions of minds of this high order; and no writings better calculated than these, very few so well, to elevate the tone of public feeling, and public and private morals, and make men appreciate and feel their obligations and duties to God and their fellow-men, to themselves and society, to their country and the world. We have sometimes smiled at hearing it said that Dr. C.'s writings were ephemeral, and his fame on the wane. The very contrary of this is true. He speaks too powerfully to the universal heart of man to have it otherwise. The time to measure his influence or his fame, is not yet, and the calm and undisturbed manner in which he holds on his course, taking and noting his observations, uttering his predictions, urging great and universal principles, and insisting on the great destinies of man, which he confidently declares will be wrought out and accomplished, is earnest enough that he feels, and that he has a response in the bosoms of the millions to whom he does, and is to speak.

- 4.—*Masterman Ready; or the Wreck of the Pacific.* Written for Young People. By Captain MARRYATT. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841. pp. 186.

An interesting narrative after the manner of Robinson Crusoe. The series will be continued, should this first part meet the approbation of children. In the character of Ready, the author exhibits the practical man, and that of the theoretical in the father of the family. As the work advances, Capt. M. will enter more deeply into the questions which may induce children to think, or by raising their curiosity, stimulate them to seek for information. The moral tendency of the tale is unexceptionable. The present volume forms one of the series of "Appleton's Tales for the People and their Children."

- 5.—*The Ancient Regime.* By James. 2 vols. 12mo. Harper and Brothers.

In our opinion this is one of James' very best novels; and we are aware that this is saying a great deal, as he has published so many excellent things before. Independent of its interest as a work of fiction, it presents a picture of French manners, under the old *regime*, that is exceedingly striking.

- 6.—*Life of Paul Jones.* By ALEXANDER SLIDELL MACKENZIE, U. S. N. Boston: Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1841. 18mo. pp. 260, 308.

It was fortunate for the author of this narrative that Paul Jones, the hero, moved doubtless by the conviction that his actions would be the subject of future interest, was careful in placing on record and preserving every thing that would be of value to the biographer. It will be seen that the materials placed in the hands of the author were sufficiently ample to enable him to prepare a full and complete memoir of the eventful life and actions of the renowned subject. In 1825, Mr. J. H. Sherburn, the registrar of the navy, published a life of Jones, from the documents on file in the government offices, and from a portion of his private papers, to which Mr. Sherburn had access. In 1830, a more elaborate work on the same subject was published at Edinburgh, from the materials furnished by Sherburn, from log-books of Jones's various cruises, and from original papers in possession of his heirs. A third life was published in New York the same year, by Mr. Robert Sands, from the materials used in the Edinburgh work, and subsequently brought to this country by a niece of Paul Jones. These works were in the historical style, and contain a mass of documents not always interesting to the general reader. Mr. Mackenzie has, in the volumes before us, avoided this difficulty, and merely states all the known facts in the life of Jones, in a simple, consecutive form, according to their natural order of succession. Letters, however, of Paul Jones, are occasionally introduced, sufficient to convey to the mind a more distinct idea of his thoughts and feelings than could otherwise be obtained. They are written with clearness, spirit, and vigor. Mr. Mackenzie's style is graceful and scholarly, and the typographical appearance of the volumes is not surpassed by some of the handsomest productions of the British press.

7. *History of the Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, the Catholic.* By WILLIAM B. H. PRESCOTT. In three volumes, 8vo. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1840.

This great work has received the lasting impress of public approbation, both in our own country and in Europe; and no remark of ours can add or detract from its well established reputation. For profound research, just proportion, and classical purity of style, it exhibits to the world a splendid model of historical composition, which ranks scarcely behind those great historiographers, Hume and Gibbon, without being marred by the defects of principle which are presented by the latter works. It is indeed a relief, amid that barren waste of literary pretension which disfigures our own age, to find a countryman occasionally springing up whose talents are calculated to relieve the sad picture; and here is one, the direct tendency of whose effort is to produce that effect. He has entered upon the subject as a great labor, allowing to himself ample time not only to model his enduring structure upon a noble plan, but to perfect his details in their minutest parts. The historic circumstances belonging to the tract of time which it embraces, are set forth with such transparent beauty, and fulness of marginal references, that we are in doubt which most to admire, the elegance of its composition or that power of labor which has thus successfully completed so arduous a task. The literary value of the work is properly aided by the richness of its mechanical execution and its engraved illustrations; and we cheerfully add our assistance to the wide diffusion of a knowledge of its merits.

- 8.—*Guy's Elements of Astronomy, and an Abridgment of Keith's New Treatise on the Use of the Globes.* 20th Edition. Philadelphia: Thomas, Cowperthwait & Co. 18mo. pp. 173. 1841.

The part of this work treating on Astronomy is clear, intelligible, and well suited to the comprehension of beginners in this sublime science. It contains a great amount of useful and interesting information, and is well illustrated with appropriate engravings. In truth, we know of no work on this subject which comprises so much in little space as the one before us.



- 9.—*History of the Colonization of the United States.* By GEORGE BANCROFT. Abridged by the author. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 18mo. pp. 332, 335.

Mr. Bancroft has been pronounced from authoritative sources one of the great historical writers of the age. While we defer to that judgment, we would not withhold the expression of our conviction that he is the greatest. His great work now in progress has been carried down through the period of the North American colonization, of which the present volumes are an abridgment for the use of schools. The author, a ripe scholar, has embraced the task as a labor of love, and disregarding that large mass of trash called "history," which loads the shelves of our libraries, he has, with painstaking diligence, consulted original records in print and manuscript, and by a careful comparison of authorities placed the facts which he has recorded upon an impregnable basis. His style is original and highly colored, exhibiting the charm of life-like description mingled with chronological details, and favorably contrasted with those crude efforts of many of our historians whose books are as dry as a proposition of Euclid. It may safely be alleged that the history of the colonization of the United States is now written. Mr. Bancroft has ploughed deep, and reaped a harvest in this section of our history which leaves but little chance for the gleaner. In his larger work he has erected a solid and enduring monument to himself and to his country. The present volumes contain the most important matter of that work, and are embellished with several maps and engravings which illustrate his text. Relieved as he now is from the onerous duties of a public officer, we hope that he may go on and complete the task which, if it shall be finished as it has been commenced, will yield him a wider and more lasting fame, and a deeper gratitude in the hearts of considerate and unprejudiced men, than could be produced by any political elevation.

- 10.—*The Hannahs, or Maternal Influence on Sons.* By ROBERT PHILIP. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 18mo. pp. 308. 1841.

The present volume, preceded by "The Marthas, or Varieties of Female Piety," the "Lydias, or the Development of Female Character," the "Marys, or the Beauty of Holiness," is the fourth of a series of books from the same pen, of uniform size and price, published by the house named in the titlepage, under the general head of the "Lady's Closet Library." Written as they were by a clergyman of the Presbyterian Church, of reputed piety, they of course possess a religious character, and although it is evidently not the aim of the author to impart to their pages a sectarian spirit, they indicate the particular religious sentiments of the denomination to which he belongs. They are written in an easy, flowing style, and contain matter of an instructive character, well adapted to the taste of a large class of persons of different denominations, who embrace the popular faith as held by those commonly called "evangelical" Christians. The volumes are beautifully printed, as indeed are most of the publications of D. Appleton & Co., who deserve praise for the general improvement they have made in the typographical appearance of the works emanating from their prolific press.

- 11.—*Peter Parley's Universal History on the Basis of Geography. For the Use of Families.* Illustrated by maps and engravings. Two volumes in one. New York: J. A. Hoisington. 16mo. pp. 760. 1841.

This is unquestionably the most comprehensive abridgment of universal history that has yet been published. The idea of embracing in the compass of two little volumes any thing like a tolerable outline of the voluminous facts connected with universal history is certainly preposterous, but Mr. Goodrich has succeeded in bringing together in outline the most remarkable events of ancient and modern times, in a very attractive form, so that his work will create a taste for the study of this interesting and important branch of useful knowledge.

- 12.—*The Widow Directed to God.* By JOHN ANGELL JAMES. With an Introduction. New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1841. 18mo. pp. 205.

The present volume is, we believe, the only one in our language devoted especially to the consolation of the afflicted widow. It is well remarked by the American editor, that few men could, with much hope of success, undertake a task so delicate. Properly to perform it, required not only a warm and generous heart, a clear and discriminating intellect, a practical acquaintance with the laws that govern the human mind, but also, personal experience in similar grief. In all these respects, the gifted author of this volume is eminently qualified. He has not only a mind of simplicity and elegance, but evidently possesses a heart of universal generosity—alive to every appeal of sorrow. The early loss of the wife of his youth, and the rapid though sweetly passing away of his present companion, have served to quicken into life past sorrow, besides opening to his heart new fountains of grief. Whilst, therefore, he hands forth the cup of consolation, he assures the mourner that it has virtue; for he has tasted it, and found its power. There is a subdued and tender spirit breathed into every page and paragraph, and the work is written with elegance and great simplicity of style. We therefore commend it to the attention of all who sorrow for the severance of the nearest and dearest ties of humanity.

- 13.—*Letters from abroad to Kindred at Home.* By MISS SEDGWICK. 2 vols. 12mo. New York : Harper & Brothers. 1841.

There is a *naïveté*, a freshness and life, about these letters, that is truly charming. The amiable and excellent author forewarns us that we are not to look for any "statistics—any 'valuable information,'" that is, any thing about stocks, trade, population, politics, *et id omne genus*, and we are glad of it, for any dull collector may gather up these matters; we want the *spiritual*, something that does not smack so much of earth—a delineation of man, not as the slave of his animal wants, but in the higher and purer aspects of his intellectual nature, his sympathies and affections; and this is a picture to be drawn only by such writers as Miss Sedgwick. These few words may suffice to give our readers some idea of the character of the work, but they must buy it and read it for themselves, if they would have an intellectual treat such as they have not enjoyed for many a day.

- 14.—*Farewell Tales.* By MRS. HOFLAND, author of *Energy; Moderation; Integrity; Decision; Reflection; Clergyman's Widow; Good Grandmother; Sisters; Merchant's Widow; Stolen Boy; Blind Farmer; Daughter-in-law; Affectionate Brothers; Elizabeth and her Three Beggar Boys, &c.* New York: Dean & Trevett. 18mo. pp. 225.

With this little volume, containing thirteen tales, Mrs. Hofland closes her labors in the department of juvenile literature, and all who have read those named in the catalogue quoted from the preface of the one now before us, will regret to bid her "farewell." Though highly wrought, they inculcate pure and benevolent sentiments, and are written in an easy, agreeable style. The publishers of this and several other volumes of her writings, are completing the entire series, in uniform size, which will form a very interesting "Girls and Boys' Library."

- 15.—*The Temptation; or Henry Thornton.* By a Minister. Boston : Saxton and Pierce. 18mo. pp. 106. 1841.

The writer of this tale informs us in the preface, that he has attempted nothing more than a plain recital of facts, a portion of which came under his own notice. The narrative illustrates the evils of intemperance, and is designed to guard the unwary youth from the temptation of falling a prey to the vice.

## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION

BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND PORTUGAL.

A TREATY of commerce and navigation between the United States and Portugal was concluded at Lisbon on the 25th of August, 1840, and the ratifications exchanged at Washington on the 23d of April, 1841. It is based on the principle of perfect reciprocity. The material provisions are as follows:—

ARTICLE I.—There shall be, between the territories of the high contracting parties, a reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation. The citizens and subjects of their respective states shall, mutually, have liberty to enter the ports, places, and rivers of the territories of each party, wherever foreign commerce is, or shall be, permitted. They shall be at liberty to sojourn and reside in all parts of said territories, in order to attend to their affairs; and they shall enjoy, to that effect, the same security and protection as natives of the country wherein they reside, on condition of their submitting to the laws and ordinances there prevailing, and particularly to the regulations in force concerning commerce.

ART. II.—Vessels of the United States of America arriving, either laden or in ballast, in the ports of the kingdom and possessions of Portugal; and, reciprocally, Portuguese vessels arriving, either laden or in ballast, in the ports of the United States of America, shall be treated, on their entrance, during their stay, and at their departure, upon the same footing as national vessels coming from the same place, with respect to the duties of tonnage, lighthouse duties, pilotage, port charges, as well as to the fees and perquisites of public officers, and all other duties and charges, of whatever kind or denomination, levied upon vessels of commerce, in the name or to the profit of the government, the local authorities, or of any public or private establishment whatever.

ART. III.—No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation, into the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States of America; and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation, into the United States of America, of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, than such as are, or shall be payable on the like article, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country.

Nor shall any prohibition be imposed on the importation or exportation of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States of America, or of the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, to or from the ports of the said kingdom and possessions or Portugal, or of the said States, which shall not equally extend to all other foreign nations.

Nor shall any higher or other duties or charges be imposed in either of the two countries, on the exportation of any articles to the United States of America, or to the kingdom of Portugal, respectively, than such as are payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country.

Provided, however, that nothing contained in this article shall be understood or intended to interfere with the stipulation entered into by the United States of America, for a special equivalent, in regard to French wines, in the convention made by the said States and France, on the fourth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-one; which stipulation will expire and cease to have effect, in the month of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-two.

ART. IV.—The same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties, deduction, or privileges allowed, on the importation, into the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, of any



article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States of America, whether such importation shall be in vessels of the said States, or in Portuguese vessels; and, reciprocally, the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties, deductions, or privileges allowed, on the importation, into the United States of America, of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, whether such importation shall be in Portuguese vessels, or in vessels of the said States.

ART. V.—It is agreed by the high contracting parties that, whenever there may be lawfully imported into all or any of the ports of the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, in vessels of any foreign country, articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of a country other than that to which the importing vessels shall belong, the same privilege shall immediately become common to vessels of the United States of America, with all the same rights and favors as may, in that respect, be granted to the most favored nations. And, reciprocally, in consideration thereof, Portuguese vessels shall thereafter enjoy, in the same respect, privileges, rights, and favors, to a correspondent extent, in the ports of the United States of America.

ART. VI.—All kinds of merchandise and articles of commerce, which may be lawfully exported or re-exported from the ports of either of the high contracting parties to any foreign country, in national vessels, may also be exported or re-exported therefrom in vessels of the other party, respectively, without paying other or higher duties or charges of whatever kind or denomination, than if the same merchandise or articles of commerce were exported or re-exported in national vessels.

And the same bounties and drawbacks shall be allowed, whether such exportation or re-exportation be made in the vessels of the one party or the other.

ART. VII.—It is expressly understood that nothing contained in this treaty shall be applicable to the coastwise navigation of either of the two countries, which each of the high contracting parties reserves exclusively to itself.

ART. VIII.—It is mutually understood that the foregoing stipulations do not apply to ports and territories in the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, where foreign commerce and navigation are not admitted; and that the commerce and navigation of Portugal, directly to and from the United States of America and the said ports and territories, are also prohibited.

But her most faithful majesty agrees, that as soon as the said ports and territories, or any of them, shall be open to the commerce or navigation of any foreign nation, they shall, from that moment, be also opened to the commerce and navigation of the United States of America, with the same privileges, rights, and favors as may be allowed to the most favored nation; gratuitously, if the concession was gratuitously made, or on allowing the same compensation, or an equivalent, if the concession was conditional.

ART. X.—The two contracting parties shall have the liberty of having, each in the ports of the other, consuls, vice consuls, agents, and commissaries of their own appointment, who shall enjoy the same privileges and powers as those of the most favored nation. But, before any consul, vice consul, agent, or commissary shall act as such, he shall, in the usual form, be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent.

But, if any such consuls shall exercise commerce, they shall be submitted to the same laws and usages to which the private individuals of their nation are submitted, in the same place, in respect of their commercial transactions.

And it is hereby declared that, in case of offence against the laws, such consul, vice consul, agent, or commissary may either be punished according to law, or sent back, the offended government assigning to the other reasons for the same.

The archives and papers of the consulates shall be respected inviolably; and under no pretext whatever shall any magistrate seize, or in any way interfere with them.

The consuls, vice consuls, and commercial agents, shall have the right as such, to sit

as judges and arbitrators, in such differences as may arise between the captains and crews of vessels belonging to the nation whose interests are committed to their charge, without the interference of the local authorities, unless the conduct of the crews, or of the captains, should disturb the order or the tranquillity, or offend the laws of the country; or the said consuls, vice consuls, or commercial agents should require their assistance to cause their decisions to be carried into effect or supported.

ART. XI.—The said consuls, vice consuls, and commercial agents are authorized to require the assistance of the local authorities for the search, arrest, detention, and imprisonment of the deserters from the ships of war and merchant vessels of their country.

For this purpose, they shall apply to the competent tribunals, judges, and officers, and shall, in writing, demand the said deserters, proving, by the exhibition of the registers of the vessels, the rolls of the crews, or by any other official documents, that such individuals formed part of the crews; and this reclamation being thus substantiated, the surrender shall be made without delay.

Such deserters, when arrested, shall be placed at the disposal of the said consuls, vice consuls, or commercial agents, and may be confined in the public prisons, at the request and cost of those who shall claim them, in order to be detained until the time when they shall be restored to the vessels to which they belonged, or sent back to their own country, by a vessel of the same nation, or any other vessel whatsoever.

But, if not sent back within four months from the day of their arrest, they shall be set at liberty, and shall not be again arrested for the same cause. However, if the deserter shall be found to have committed any crime or offence, the surrender may be delayed until the tribunal, before which his case shall be pending, shall have pronounced its sentence and such sentence shall have been carried into effect.

ART. XIII.—If either party shall, hereafter, grant to any other nation any particular favor in navigation and commerce, it shall immediately become common to the other party; freely, where it is freely granted to such other nation, or on yielding the same compensation, or an equivalent, *quam proxime*, where the grant is conditional.

#### NEW TARIFF OF DUTIES AT VENEZUELA.

CHANGES IN THE TARIFF OF DUTIES ON EXPORTS AND IMPORTS IN THE REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA.

The department of state at Washington has received officially from the government of Venezuela, information of the following changes in the tariff of duties on exports and imports of that republic; which changes were to take effect from and after the 1st day of July, 1841.

1. All duties on exports from the ports of the republic cease.

2. The following articles will hereafter be admitted into those ports free from duty:—

Bricks, bran, moulds for sugar mills, living animals of all kinds, ploughs, peas, rice, oats, scarfs for the use of churches, drills, casks and barrels, pumps of wood or iron for irrigation, coal, carts or wagons, wheelbarrows, surplices and other garments for priests, collections or books of music or drawings, and paper prepared for music or drawings, columns of all kinds for buildings, iron cooking stoves, jackets, staves, juniper berries, baggage of passengers, statues of all sorts, copper or iron sugar or still boilers, Dutch ovens, beans, engravings, mathematical or other scientific instruments, boats of iron or wood set up or in pieces, lentils, parts of sugar mills, printed books and maps, files, Indian corn, apples, cotton gins, machines for dredging, mining, spinning, weaving, and shelling corn, steam engines, gold and silver, pans of copper, brass, or zinc, printing paper, potatoes, carriage and cart wheels, seeds, brushes.

3. The duties on the following articles have been diminished, and will in future be thus:—

Boots for men, the pair, \$1; do. for boys, do., 75 cents; pitch, the quintal, \$1 00;

beer, in bottles, the dozen, 80 cents; do., in other vessels, arroba, 50 cents; brooms, of all sorts, the dozen, 50 cents; pepper, the quintal, \$3 00; slates, each, 6 cents; tallow, in lump, the quintal, \$2 00; do., manufactured, do., \$4 00; cider, in bottles, the dozen, 80 cents; do., in other vessels, arroba, 50 cents; white pine boards, the 1000 feet, \$4 00; pitch pine boards, do., \$6 00; shoes for men, the pair, 30 cents; do., for women, do., 20 cents; do., for children, do., 6 cents.

#### NEW COMMERCIAL REGULATION OF PERU.

The department of state at Washington, (July 7, 1841,) publish officially a decree of which the following is a translation, which has been issued by the government of Peru, taking effect from and after the 1st of February, 1841:—

“All vessels, whether national or foreign, coming from a foreign country, are absolutely prohibited from touching at any of the minor ports or coves of the republic, under a pain of a fine of one thousand dollars, payable by the captain in favor of the informants; for which the vessel is liable, whether belonging to the captain or to others. If, moreover, it be proved that any person, or goods, or letters, have been landed from the vessel at any port at which she may have thus touched contrary to law, the vessel shall be confiscated, and the captain will, in addition, become liable to a criminal prosecution.”

It is important that this regulation should be made known to our vessels, particularly to those employed in whaling, which have been in the habit of touching at many of the minor ports and coves, (including all places on the coast which are not regular ports of entry,) for the purpose of obtaining refreshments. Revenue cutters have been fitted out at Callao for the enforcement of the decree.

#### COTTON-PRESSING IN NEW ORLEANS.

The abuses of this system have reached such a height, that the shipmasters in New Orleans have addressed a circular to planters, merchants, shipowners, and others interested in the cotton trade, complaining loudly of the evils of the system, and calling for a remedy; recommending the abolishment of pressing, and the shipping of cotton just as it is turned out from the planters' presses.

The delay occasioned by the present pressing system more than counterbalances any benefits derived from it. In order to bring about a change, the following plan is recommended by the circular:—

1. That all owners of vessels, engaged in the trade, instruct their captains not to have their cotton repressed, and that this measure be acted on in concert in the United States and Great Britain, from the 1st October, 1841.

2. They advise planters not to consign cotton to any house that will not receive it when landed, and put it into safe sheds and stores where it will be free from wet, damage, and stealage.

#### MASTERS OF VESSELS AND NON-RESIDENTS.

By a law of the last legislature of the state of New York, it is made lawful for the owners or masters of any vessel on board of which the goods of any non-resident, concealed, or absconding debtor shall have been shipped in good faith, for the purpose of transportation, without reshipment or transshipment in this state, to any port or place out of this state, to transport and deliver such goods according to their destination, notwithstanding the issuing of any attachment against such debtor, unless the attaching creditor, his agent, or attorney, shall execute a bond, with sufficient sureties, to any or either of the owners or masters of the vessel on board of which such goods shall be shipped, conditioned to pay such owner or master all expenses, damages, and charges which may be incurred by such owners or master, or to which they may be subjected for unloading said goods from said vessel, and for all necessary detention of said vessel for that purpose.



This act is not extended to any case where such owner or master, either before or at the time of the shipment of such goods, shall have received actual information of the issuing of such attachment, nor where the owner or the master of any vessel have in any wise connived at or been privy to the shipment of such goods, for the purpose of screening them from legal process, or for the purpose of hindering, delaying, or defrauding creditors.

## NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

### STATISTICS OF ENGLISH NAVIGATION.

We gather from an article in an English publication, that in the year 1821, the total number of foreign ships which entered the ports of Great Britain was 3,216, with a burden of 396,256 tons, and a complement of 26,043 men; and this number in 1838 had increased to 10,286 ships, 1,331,765 tons, and 79,550 men. The most rapid increase of foreign shipping is among the Baltic powers, the commercial marine of Prussia employed in British commerce having increased in eighteen years from 159 ships and 1,662 men to 1,283 ships and 10,729 men; that of Denmark from 46 ships and 203 men to 1,532 ships and 7,552 men; and that of Hamburg and the other Hanseatic towns, from 36 ships and 249 men to 325 ships and 2,695 men. The increase in the shipping of France, the United States, Russia, and Holland, employed in the trade with England, seems to have been less rapid, though still very considerable. In the same period of eighteen years, the American shipping thus employed had increased from 450 ships worked by 6,216 seamen to 558 ships and 10,533 seamen; the Russian from 45 ships worked by 586 seamen to 293 ships worked by 3,381 seamen; and the Dutch and Belgian from 456 ships worked by 2,560 seamen to 1,017 ships worked by 8,927 seamen.

A comparison between the amount of British shipping and the number of men employed in the trade with foreign countries and the British colonies, gives the following result, which exhibits a vast idea of the value of the colonial trade to Great Britain as a nursery for seamen. In 1833, the shipping employed in trade with foreign countries amounted to 11,035 vessels, 1,750,333 tons, 99,685 men. Shipping employed in the trade with the British colonies, 6,600 vessels, 1,351,317 tons, 10,854 men.

### CAUTION TO WHALEMEN BOUND TO THE INDIAN OCEAN.

The New London Advocate, good authority on all matters concerning the whale fishery, cautions all whalers who, during their voyage to the Indian Ocean, intend to call at Swan River, on the west coast of New Holland, for refreshments or other purposes, not to attempt an entrance at either of the southern passages, they being so intricate and difficult of access, that the pilot is now expressly forbid attempting them with ships. Although the directions in Owen's charts, which are in general use with whalers about that coast, have the southern channels all so distinctly put down, that they are, apparently, a sure guide, having buoys represented at practicable distances on the verges of the channels, several whaling ships have miraculously escaped from being lost in attempting to enter them during the year past. They are literally surrounded with coral rocks, reefs, and shoals, and no buoys or guides of any description are to be found on any of them.

The only safe passage for strangers, "and this clear and spacious," is between Rot-tenset Island and the main land, passing the island on the side  $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{3}{4}$  of a mile distant. You then have no obstacles, when steering for the anchorage, but the would-be pilot or harbor-master, Capt. G. C. Garret, and at first sight of him, stand by your anchor; you surely will be near the anchoring ground, when, forsooth, he may be on board in time to say "let go," for which the sum of \$20 is demanded, and \$20 more on your weighing

anchor, when he leaves your ship and the master to go out as he came in—his own pilot. The high price of \$40, as pilotage, has now become a law, and must be paid before you receive a clearance, whether this functionary has or has not offered his services as such. Other expenses at Swan River are in due ratio. In the line of recruits:—potatoes, \$150 per ton; onions, \$8 per 100; fresh beef, 30 cents per lb., and very little at that; mutton, 28 cents, to be had semi-weekly.

#### PLYMOUTH BREAKWATER.

The Plymouth (Eng.) Breakwater is nearly a mile in length, is fifteen yards wide at top, and six feet above high-water mark. It has been twenty-eight years in progress, has consumed 3,362,727 tons of stone, and cost £1,200,000.

### BANK STATISTICS.

#### THE BANK OF FRANCE.

REPORT PRESENTED TO THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE PROPRIETORS, BY COUNT D'ARGOUT, GOVERNOR OF THE BANK.

In a commercial point of view, the year 1840 was not free from vicissitudes. During the last six months, some uneasiness prevailed; the transactions became less active, the discount on commercial effects diminished, but other operations assumed a greater extension. Taken together, however, the years 1839 and 1840 present nearly the same results:—

In 1839 the mass of operations realized by the central bank and its branches amounted to.....	Francs.
1,454,000,000	
In 1840 they were.....	1,461,000,000

Total for the two years.....	2,915,000,000
Differences.....	7,000,000

The dividend paid in 1839 was 144f., and in 1840 139f.

In 1840 the advances on canal shares, loans on rentes, the discount on mint bonds, and the advance on ingots, exhibit a more or less considerable increase.

The discount on commercial paper, obligations of the city of Paris, and bonds secured by the produce of forests, underwent, on the other hand, some diminution. These fluctuations will be seen by the annexed comparative returns:—

	1839.	1840.
	Francs.	Francs.
The advances on canal shares rose from.....	13,227,000	to 16,395,000
Loans on rentes, from.....	19,850,000	to 46,356,000
Discount of mint bonds, from.....	32,826,000	to 45,130,000
Advance on ingots, from.....	195,975,000	to 241,786,000

Total.....	261,878,000	to 349,667,000
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These united augmentations form a sum of 87,789,000f.

On the other hand:—

	Francs.	Francs.
The discount on treasury bills and obligations of the city of Paris fell from.....	1,399,000	to 1,151,000
The discount on foreign securities, from.....	5,244,000	to 2,595,000
And finally, the discount on commercial paper, from.....	1,047,054,000	to 928,534,000

Total, from.....	1,053,697,000	to 932,280,000
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These reductions amounted together to 121,417,000f., which exhibit a falling off in the operations of the central bank, in 1840, of 33,634,000f.

The greatest amount of bills *en porte feuille* was 201,000,000f. on the 31st of January, and the minimum 130,000,000f. on the 8th of June; on the 31st December it again rose to 154,000,000f.

600,600 commercial effects were discounted in 1840 by the central bank; that is, 27,800 less than in 1839. Their average amount declined from 1,639f. to 1,517f.; and the average of the periods at which they became due from 57 days two thirds to 56 days four fifths. In this number 266,024 bills of from 1000f. to 200f., and 63,247 of 199f. and under, were admitted.

The bills due at the end of the different months varied from 34,200f. to 40,600f. Those payable on demand amounted to 891,000,000f., or 16,000,000f. more than in 1839.

The various current accounts underwent great fluctuations. From the month of January to that of October they rose from 54,000,000f. to 90,000,000f. In December they had fallen to 61,000,000f.

On the 6th of January, 1840, the treasury was creditor to the amount of 170,000,000f., and on the 21st March, of 193,000,000f. From March to the 6th of November, this account progressively decreased to 105,000,000f. On the 30th of December, it again rose to 114,000,000f.

The 6th of January, 1840, was the date of the *minimum* of the reserve, which was then 206,000,000f.; on the 21st of March it had reached 248,000,000f.; on the 17th of April, 249,600,000f.; on the 6th of November, it still offered the sum of 237,000,000f.; and on the 30th of December it had fallen to 225,000,000f.

In comparing the movements of the reserve with those of the Treasury account, it will be found that between the 6th of January and the 21st of March, the Treasury account increased by 23,000,000f., and the reserves augmented in a nearly double proportion, having risen to 42,000,000f.; that between the 21st of March and the 6th of November the treasury withdrew 88,000,000f., and the reserves declined only 11,000,000f.; that, finally, on the 30th of December, the cash on hand exceeded nearly by 20,000,000f. that existing on the 6th of January, 1840, although at the first of those periods the treasury was creditor of 170,000,000f., and at the second its credit only amounted to 114,000,000f.

The average of the reserve of the year was 258,900,000f., and that of the circulation 221,900,000f. The circulation of 1840 exceeded by 9,000,000f. that of 1839. From the 19th day of March to the 31st day of October, it fluctuated between a *minimum* of 201,000,000f. and a *maximum* of 251,000,000f.

The commercial bills unpaid in 1840 amounted to 48,493f.; 32,707f. were reimbursed in the course of the year, and on the 1st of January last there remained due 15,785f.

The movement of the shares was more considerable than during the previous years. In 1839, 6,454 shares changed masters. In 1840, the number transferred to new owners was 16,805.

The ordinary administrative expenditures in 1839 rose to 1,020,000f.; in 1840 they were reduced to 971,000f. The diminution was 48,500f.; but, on the other hand, the administration in 1840 had to support an extraordinary expense of 101,800f., owing principally to the license duty, which the bank had to pay for the first time; to the stamp duty, imposed on the circulation of bills by the law of the 30th of June last; and some indispensable repairs.

The branch banks in the departments were progressing satisfactorily. The operations of those established at Rheims, St. Etienne, St. Quentin, and Montpellier, had amounted, in 1838, to 83,000,000f., and to 138,000,000f. in 1839. They reached 179,000,000f. in 1840, having more than doubled in the space of three years. The gross produce of those four branches was 1,099,000f.; their expenses amounted to 253,000f., including 112,000f. for the cost of carriage of specie. The nett produce was 836,000f., representing a dividend of 12f. 30c. per share.

The other branch banks were opened in 1840, at Grenoble and Angouleme, but having commenced at a late period of the year, their operations had not covered the expenses of their establishment, the total loss having been 44,936f.



## Statement of the condition of the banks in the state of New York from 1819 to 1841.

DATE.	Numb. of Banks.	Numb. of Branches.	Capital.	Loans and Discounts.	Stocks.	Real Estate.	Other Investments.	Due by Other Banks.
1819	33	-	20,488,933					
Jan. 1, '30	*30	-	15,637,353	20,370,693				
Jan. 1, '31	78	-	27,755,264	57,689,704	395,309	1,580,701		9,560,018
Jan. 1, '35	†84	2	30,481,460	61,968,094	551,568	1,594,937	27,813	12,241,905
Jan. 1, '36	86	2	31,281,461	72,826,111	803,159	1,811,925	442,696	15,991,168
Jan. 1, '37	98	2	37,101,460	79,313,188	1,794,152	2,263,857	1,123,225	18,832,254
June 1, '37	†94	2	36,401,460	74,053,857	53,581	2,120,551	3,915,631	13,679,040
July 1, '37	†94	2	36,401,460	71,835,551	53,581	2,130,180	4,111,151	14,304,955
Aug. 1, '37	†94	2	36,401,460	70,317,142	53,581	2,185,612	4,436,580	17,297,245
Sept. 1, '37	†94	2	36,401,460	68,357,697	53,581	2,194,738	4,550,254	17,509,608
Oct. 1, '37	†94	2	36,401,460	67,374,720	53,581	2,222,901	4,494,030	17,271,457
Nov. 1, '37	†94	2	36,401,460	65,311,159	105,799	2,260,904	5,572,896	17,556,398
Dec. 1, '37	†94	2	36,404,460	63,253,979	532,376	2,280,227	6,097,500	17,797,852
Jan. 1, '38	95	2	36,611,460	60,999,770	2,795,207	2,356,249	6,012,661	13,196,195
Feb. 1, '38	94	2	36,401,460	60,675,877	532,376	2,352,628	4,321,994	16,548,020
Mar. 1, '38	94	2	36,401,460	59,715,450	532,376	2,363,384	4,619,312	14,388,325
April 1, '38	94	2	36,401,460	58,860,016	529,779	2,366,456	3,813,302	14,603,771
May 1, '38	94	2	36,401,460	57,903,043	421,439	2,383,828	4,554,462	14,331,663
Jan'y, '39	96	2	36,801,460	68,300,486	911,623	2,557,655	1,139,662	14,122,940
Jan'y, '40	96	2	36,801,460	52,788,206	3,653,170	2,937,695	1,081,967	6,543,125
Jan'y, '40	§63	-	15,227,321	15,268,861	1,810,950			2,600,622
Jan'y, '41	95	2	36,401,460	54,691,163	4,630,392	3,588,132	861,643	10,061,002

## STATEMENT, ETC.—Continued.

DATE.	Numb. of Banks.	Numb. of Branches.	Notes of Other Banks.	Specie Funds.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due Other Banks.
1819	33	-			2,000,000	12,500,000		
Jan. 1, '30	*20	-			1,560,291	7,959,280	10,354,500	
Jan. 1, '31	78	-	6,888,734		2,657,503	17,820,402	19,119,338	10,590,265
Jan. 1, '35	†84	2	6,805,045	670,363	7,169,949	16,199,505	20,088,685	16,551,841
Jan. 1, '36	86	2	10,237,574	1,277,886	6,224,646	21,127,927	29,532,616	19,783,482
Jan. 1, '37	98	2	12,487,610	3,268,648	6,557,020	24,198,000	30,883,179	20,462,823
June 1, '37	†94	2	5,413,877	1,492,768	3,033,209	15,422,127	23,440,374	12,019,034
July 1, '37	†94	2	5,888,127	1,459,623	3,018,173	15,278,300	22,072,094	14,186,056
Aug. 1, '37	†94	2	6,323,062	1,356,203	2,972,570	15,471,667	20,463,992	15,990,813
Sept. 1, '37	†94	2	5,115,376	1,158,669	2,937,581	14,190,516	19,508,295	15,875,624
Oct. 1, '37	†94	2	5,980,366	1,390,509	3,103,950	15,531,288	20,250,039	13,763,906
Nov. 1, '37	†94	2	5,957,629	1,040,960	3,292,084	15,468,565	18,729,039	14,018,002
Dec. 1, '37	†94	2	5,990,771	1,170,187	3,722,083	14,154,119	18,287,588	14,169,811
Jan. 1, '38	95	2	3,616,918	618,277	4,139,732	12,432,478	15,895,684	15,221,487
Feb. 1, '38	94	2	5,730,929	774,434	4,191,289	11,664,355	17,102,966	14,181,717
Mar. 1, '38	94	2	5,758,550	940,013	4,359,813	11,220,450	16,533,444	13,228,860
April 1, '38	94	2	6,175,645	794,636	5,117,063	11,057,935	16,503,123	13,812,266
May 1, '38	94	2	7,327,834	960,037	9,355,495	12,960,652	18,411,860	14,307,517
Jan'y, '39	96	2	3,907,137	2,838,694	6,602,708	19,373,149	18,370,044	15,314,098
Jan'y, '40	96	2	4,401,400	2,310,161	5,864,634	10,629,514	16,473,235	7,055,584
Jan'y, '40	§63	-			1,135,895	3,590,790	3,587,999	3,119,582
Jan'y, '41	95	2	4,922,764	2,188,565	5,429,622	15,235,056	17,053,279	10,374,682

\* Not complete.

† Exclusive of Fulton Bank, and Delaware &amp; Hudson Canal Company.

‡ All the banks in the state, except the Dry Dock Bank, the Brooklyn Bank, the Sacchetti's Harbor Bank, and the Lockport Bank.

§ Free banks.

# STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

## POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following table is the first official account of the census of 1840 yet published. It was furnished to the Senate by the Secretary of State, in obedience to a resolution of that body, and ordered to be printed.

*Statement, showing the aggregate in the population of the several states and territories, and in the District of Columbia, under the last census, distinguishing the number of whites, free persons of color, and all other persons, as nearly as can be ascertained at this time.*

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	White Popu- lation.	Free Colored Persons.	All other Per- sons.	TOTAL.
Maine,.....	500,438	1,355	.....	501,793
New Hampshire,.....	284,036	537	1	284,574
Massachusetts,.....	729,030	8,668	1	737,699
Rhode Island,.....	105,587	3,238	5	108,830
Connecticut,.....	301,856	8,105	17	309,948
Vermont,.....	291,218	730	.....	291,948
New York,.....	2,378,890	50,027	4	2,428,921
New Jersey,.....	351,588	21,044	674	373,308
Pennsylvania,.....	1,676,115	47,854	64	1,724,033
Delaware,.....	58,561	16,919	2,605	78,085
Maryland,.....	317,717	62,020	89,495	469,232
Virginia,.....	740,968	49,842	448,987	1,239,797
North Carolina,.....	484,870	22,732	245,817	753,419
South Carolina,.....	259,084	8,276	327,038	594,398
Georgia,.....	407,695	2,753	280,844	691,392
Alabama,.....	335,185	2,039	253,532	590,756
Mississippi,.....	179,074	1,366	195,211	375,601
Louisiana,.....	153,983	24,368	165,219	344,570
Tennessee,.....	640,627	5,524	183,059	829,510
Kentucky,.....	587,542	7,309	182,072	776,923
Ohio,.....	1,502,122	17,342	3	1,519,467
Indiana,.....	678,698	7,165	3	685,866
Illinois,.....	472,354	3,598	331	476,183
Missouri,.....	323,888	1,574	58,240	383,702
Arkansas,.....	77,174	465	19,935	97,574
Michigan,.....	211,560	707	.....	212,267
Florida territory,.....	27,728	820	25,559	54,107
Wisconsin, do.....	30,566	178	8	30,752
Iowa,.....do.....	42,864	153	18	43,035
District of Columbia,.....	30,657	4,361	4,694	43,712
	14,181,575	336,069	2,483,536	17,051,180

Population, as per above table,.....17,051,180  
 Lafayette Parish, Louisiana, not included in the above,..... 7,832  
 Estimated population of Carter county, Kentucky, not included,..... 3,000

17,062,012  
 Seamen in the service of the United States, June 1st, 1840..... 6,100

Total population of the United States,.....17,068,112

## CENSUS OF PENNSYLVANIA, 1830 AND 1840.

A Table, showing the population and comparative increase of each county in the state, according to the census of 1830, and that of 1840; compiled from official documents, by SAMUEL HAZARD, Esq., of the United States Statistical Register.

COUNTIES.	1830.	1840.	RATE OF INCREASE PER CT.			
			1830 to '40.	1820 to '30.		
Adams,(e).....	21,379	23,044	7 9.10	10½	Clarion county (new) is included in Armstrong and Venango. Washington county is the only county in the state which has diminished in population during the last ten years without losing territory.	
Allegheny.....	50,552	81,235	60 6.10	45		
Armstrong.....	17,701	28,365	60 2.10	70		
Beaver.....	24,183	29,368	21 3.10	56		
Bedford.....	24,502	29,335	19 7.10	21		
Berks,(e).....	53,152	64,569	21 4.10	15		
Bradford.....	19,746	32,769	65 9.10	70		
Bucks,(e).....	45,745	48,107	5 1.10	21		
Butler.....	14,581	22,378	53 4.10	44		
Cambria.....	7,076	11,256	59	115		
Centre.....	18,879	20,492	.....	36	Clarion county (new) is included in Armstrong and Venango. Washington county is the only county in the state which has diminished in population during the last ten years without losing territory.	
Chester,(e).....	50,910	57,515	12 9.10	15		
Clearfield.....	4,803	7,834	63 1.10	105		
Clinton.....	.....	*8,323	.....	.....		
Columbia.....	20,059	24,267	20 9.10	14		
Crawford.....	16,030	31,724	97 8.10	70		
Cumberland,(e).....	29,226	30,953	5 8.10	24		
Dauphin,(e).....	25,243	30,118	19 3.10	17		
Delaware,(e).....	17,323	19,791	14 2.10	17		
Erie.....	17,041	31,344	83 4.10	98		
Fayette.....	29,172	33,574	15	7	Clarion county (new) is included in Armstrong and Venango. Washington county is the only county in the state which has diminished in population during the last ten years without losing territory.	
Franklin,(e).....	35,037	37,793	7 8.10	10		
Greene.....	18,028	19,147	6 2.10	16		
Huntingdon.....	27,145	35,484	30 6.10	35		
Indiana.....	14,252	20,782	45 8.10	60		
Jefferson.....	2,025	7,253	258 1.10	261		
Lancaster,(e).....	76,631	84,203	9 8.10	12		
Lebanon,(e).....	20,557	21,872	6 3.10	21		
Lehigh,(e).....	22,256	25,787	15 8.10	19		
Luzerne.....	27,379	44,006	60 7.10	36		
Lycoming.....	17,636	22,649	.....	30½	* New county from Centre and Lycoming. † New county from Northampton and Pike. ‡ Including seven townships (population in 1830, 6,764) now in Monroe co. In the remaining townships making the present Northampton co. the population has increased 25½ per cent since 1830. § Including these townships now part of Monroe county.	
Mercer.....	19,729	32,873	66 6.10	69		
Mifflin, }.....	21,690	{ 13,092	{ 11 3.10	30		
Juniata, }		{ 11,080				
Monroe,(e).....	.....	†9,879	.....	.....		
Montgomery,(e).....	39,406	47,241	19 8.10	10		
McKeon.....	1,439	2,975	106 7.10	97		
Northampton,(e).....	139,482	40,996	.....	.....		
Northumberland.....	18,133	20,027	10 4.10	18		
Perry,(e).....	14,261	17,096	19 8.10	26		
Philadelphia, city, (e)...	80,462	93,615	16 4.10	38		
Philadelphia, county, (e)	108,305	164,372	51 7.10	.....		
Pike,(e).....	64,843	3,832	.....	66	* New county from Centre and Lycoming. † New county from Northampton and Pike. ‡ Including seven townships (population in 1830, 6,764) now in Monroe co. In the remaining townships making the present Northampton co. the population has increased 25½ per cent since 1830. § Including these townships now part of Monroe county.	
Potter.....	1,265	3,371	166 7.10	580		
Schuylkill,(e).....	20,744	29,053	40	83		
Somerset.....	17,762	19,650	10 1.2	27		
Susquehanna.....	16,787	21,195	26 3.10	68		
Tioga.....	8,978	15,494	72 1.2	125		
Union.....	20,795	22,787	9 1.2	12		
Venango.....	9,470	17,900	89	86		
Warren.....	4,679	9,278	98 3.4	138		
Washington.....	42,784	41,279	.....	7		
Wayne,(e).....	7,663	11,848	54 1.2	85	N. B.—The counties marked (e) are in the eastern district, the others in the western.	
Westmoreland.....	38,400	42,699	11 1.10	25		
York,(e).....	42,859	47,010	9 6.10	10		
	1,348,203	1,724,033	27 8.10	.....		



*Comparative view of the population of the principal cities in the state of New York, at the periods designated in the following table, with their increase per cent.*

CLASS.	CITIES.	1820.	1830.	Increase from 1820 to 1830.	1840.	Increase from 1830 to 1840.	Increase from 1820 to 1840.
		Popula'n.	Popula'n.	Per cent.	Popula'n.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1	New York,...	123,706	202,589	63 77.100	312,932	54 47.100	152 96.100
2	Brooklyn,.....	7,475	15,295	104 62.100	36,233	136 89.100	384 72.100
3	Albany,.....	12,630	24,209	91 68.100	33,663	39 5.100	166 53.100
4	Rochester,.....	1,592	9,269	517 11.100	20,292	117 95.100	1245 1.100
5	Troy,.....	5,261	11,556	119 65.100	19,373	67 64.100	268 24.100
6	Buffalo,.....	2,095	6,321	201 72.100	18,041	185 41.100	761 15.100
7	Utica,.....	2,762	8,323	201 34.100	12,810	53 91.100	363 79.100
8	Schenectady,...	3,939	4,268	8 35.100	6,688	56 7.100	69 79.100
9	Hudson,.....	5,310	5,392	1 54.100	5,671	5 17.100	6 8.100

## STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

### NEW JERSEY RAILROAD.

The New Jersey railroad, from Jersey to New Brunswick, recently declared a semi-annual dividend of three per cent. The Newark Daily Advertiser publishes, as a proof of the revival of business intercourse in the community, and as a testimony, (though not conclusive,) in favor of the policy of reduced prices in an active commercial society, the following statistics, furnished from the books of the company. The statement, it will be perceived, embraces the first six months of the years 1839, '40, and '41, and affords a comparative view of the travelling on the railroad during those periods. The state of New Jersey receives from \$8,000 to \$10,000 in transit duties.

This road is in excellent condition; the conductors are obliging and attentive, the engineers careful, and more trustworthy subordinates are not easily to be found. It would afford us equal pleasure to speak in the same terms of commendation of the road from Trenton to Philadelphia, but the complaints by the cars occasionally running off the tracks are too general.

*Statement of Passengers carried on the New Jersey Railroad, for the first six months of the years 1839, 1840, and 1841.*

1839—JANUARY 1st TO JULY 1st.

Between New York and Newark,.....	72,675
“ “ Elizabethtown,.....	4,581
“ “ Rahway,.....	7,320½
“ “ New Brunswick,.....	14,769
Between Newark and Elizabethtown,.....	2,582
“ “ Rahway,.....	2,149½
“ “ New Brunswick,.....	1,947½
Way passengers to and from places between Elizabethtown and New Brunswick,.....	3,192½

Total Passengers,.....109,217

1840—JANUARY 1st TO JULY 1st.

Between New York and Newark,.....	77,457
“ “ Elizabethtown,.....	6,733
“ “ Rahway,.....	8,973
“ “ New Brunswick,.....	14,091½
Between Newark and Elizabethtown,.....	4,475½
“ “ Rahway,.....	1,682
“ “ New Brunswick,.....	1,870
Way passengers to and from places between Elizabethtown and New Brunswick,.....	2,773

Total passengers,.....118,005

## 1841—JANUARY 1st TO JULY 1st.

Between New York and Newark,	123,966
“ “ Elizabethtown,	11,674½
“ “ Rahway,	9,750½
“ “ New Brunswick,	15,144½
Between Newark and Elizabethtown,	6,093½
“ “ Rahway,	2,156
“ “ New Brunswick,	2,452
Way passengers to and from places between Elizabethtown and New Brunswick,	3,846
Total Passengers,	175,083

The number of Passengers carried in the Philadelphia lines, for which a transit duty of three cents each is paid to the state of New Jersey.

1839—January 1st to July 1st,	35,320½
1840—January 1st to July 1st,	36,477½
1841—January 1st to July 1st,	44,299½

## WESTERN STEAMBOATS.

The following steamboat statistics are compiled from data found in the Louisville Directory, just published. They exhibit an aggregate amount of steamboat tonnage that presents the commercial importance of the west in a strong light.

The number of steamboats now afloat on the western and southwestern waters is about 400. Of these there are—

Of 500 tons and over,	9 boats	Of 100 tons, and under 200,	189 boats
400 do. and under 500,	13 “	50 do. and under 100,	77 “
300 do. and under 400,	23 “	Under 50 do.,	5 “
200 do. and under 300,	79 “		

Of a few the tonnage is not reported.

The boats of the 1st class average about	600 tons,	making an aggregate of	5,400 tons.
“ 2d “ “	450 “	“	5,850 “
“ 3d “ “	350 “	“	8,050 “
“ 4th “ “	150 “	“	30,240 “
“ 5th “ “	90 “	“	5,160 “
“ 6th “ “	40 “	“	200 “

Total tonnage,.....55,000 “

Of these boats, there were built—

At Pittsburg,	112
At Cincinnati,	70
At Louisville, New Albany, and Jeffersonville,	55
At Wheeling,	20

The residue at Brownsville, Marietta, Portsmouth, and other places, all on the western waters, except four or five built in eastern ports.

## COST OF TRANSPORTATION ON CANALS, RAILROADS, &amp;c.

The inquiry is frequently made, what is the difference in the cost of transportation on canals and railroads? This question is answered by the following statement, made two years since, by Mr. Charles Ellet, Jr., Chief Engineer on the James River and Kanawha Canal and Railroad :—

Cost of freight on canals, exclusive of tolls, 1½ cent per ton per mile.

Railroads, 2½ cents.

McAdam roads, 10 to 15 cents.

Common turnpikes, 15 to 20 cents.

Steamboats on the lakes, 2 to 4 cents per ton per mile.

Steamboats on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, ½ to 1½; future average, ¾ cent per ton per mile.

# STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE.

## AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Extract from the Agricultural Statistics, as returned by the Marshals, under the 13th section of the act for taking the sixth census. Politely furnished for publication in the Merchants' Magazine, by the Hon. Daniel Webster, Secretary of State.

States and Territories.	Horses and Mules.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Poultry.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Buckwheat.	Indian Corn.
Maine.*	59,208	327,255	649,254	117,384	\$123,171	848,166	355,161	1,076,409	137,941	51,543	950,525
New Hampshire.*	39,850	261,088	606,981	120,167	97,862	442,954	121,400	1,198,949	595,534	115,463	1,252,572
Vermont.	60,274	350,106	393,426	297,932	176,437	652,293	55,635	2,342,497	447,318	158,509	1,047,601
Massachusetts.*	62,454	271,760	378,228	143,021	540,295	158,923	166,419	1,899,580	541,954	87,010	1,849,395
Rhode Island.	8,074	36,700	90,146	29,639	61,492	3,088	63,790	169,492	34,521	2,979	425,836
Connecticut.	34,751	233,969	406,985	132,222	176,659	86,940	33,759	1,456,525	736,845	299,470	1,468,538
New York.	476,115	2,642,438	5,381,225	2,116,953	2,573,023	11,853,567	2,493,170	20,728,738	2,984,915	2,244,358	10,195,142
New Jersey.*	69,709	219,548	218,553	239,051	412,457	773,023	12,601	3,686,510	1,636,570	806,570	4,311,381
Pennsylvania.	322,544	1,146,111	3,396,431	1,450,531	1,033,172	13,029,776	178,100	18,053,477	6,290,447	11,928	13,696,619
Delaware.	14,421	54,883	39,247	74,228	47,465	215,165	5,260	937,497	33,566	11,289	2,096,361
Maryland.*	93,954	240,432	262,908	421,520	219,159	3,511,433	3,594	3,579,956	824,352	74,848	8,470,165
Virginia.	243,173	1,008,313	1,280,734	1,916,230	752,467	10,066,809	14,620	13,297,551	1,367,170	241,643	34,646,696
North Carolina.*	130,828	573,840	232,664	888,513	590,794	705,925	3,967	1,446,158	44,530	72	14,721,785
South Carolina.	134,748	755,060	254,947	1,288,314	473,158	1,752,956	13,345	1,290,044	69,851	249	17,329,797
Georgia.	411,041	1,196,713	1,975,100	2,103,209	734,931	16,292,951	2,08,152	14,124,634	807,441	683,130	34,267,584
Ohio.	327,526	777,390	748,459	2,795,630	581,531	4,547,273	4,758	6,770,116	297,035	6,187	42,467,349
Tennessee.	99,067	348,708	100,054	344,685	273,314	1,010,013	6,682	1,427,992	1,812	52	6,990,478
Louisiana.	128,515	607,580	144,372	701,160	829,220	746,106	1,544	593,604	15,642	61	13,161,231
Alabama.	109,227	623,157	128,376	995,739	369,481	196,576	9,771	1,937,576	63,188	16,347	15,591,432
Mississippi.	157,578	367,623	288,235	1,072,818	230,283	946,677	25,778	5,875,449	127,584	49,681	28,005,051
Indiana.	243,767	614,459	673,932	1,580,051	393,228	4,154,256	68,455	4,558,507	95,962	63,950	22,116,627
Illinois.	195,186	604,693	577,963	1,394,284	320,908	2,740,380	85	167,452	5,925	88	3,931,149
Michigan.*	39,085	135,527	41,877	393,004	93,549	112,200	729	216,388	3,787	6,217	1,326,241
Arkansas.	10,801	37,449	15,354	104,591	17,101	154,737	294	15,751	5,981	272	39,385
Florida Territory.*	2,145	3,274	572	4,673	1,557	12,147					
Wisconsin Territory.*											
Iowa Territory.											
District of Columbia.											

\* The returns of the states marked thus, (\*) have been corrected.

† The aggregate not yet made.

‡ Aggregate not made. No return from Middle Florida.

§ Statistics not yet received.

The statistics from the remainder of the states and territories are not yet examined.



## AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.—Continued.

States and Territories.	Pounds of Wool.	Number of bushels of Potatoes.	Tons of Hay.	Tons of Hemp and Flax.	Pounds of ginned Tobacco.	Pounds of Cotton gathered.	Pounds of silk cocoons.	Pounds of Sugar m.e.	Value of the products of the Dairy.	Value of the products of the orchard.	G. Tons of Wine made.	Value of number produced.	Bbls. of tar, pitch, & rosin.
Maine.*	1,465,551	10,392,380	691,053	38				238,230	\$1,493,718	143,249	2,234	\$1,808,683	
New Hampshire.*	1,260,955	6,244,901	496,647	13,040	115		406	1,057,398	1,585,955	220,056	34	401,358	
Vermont.*	3,257,79	8,296,751	731,017	244	585		4,233	4,220,541	4,592,097	1,109,357	110	346,144	
Massachusetts.*	1,055,391	5,385,652	569,425	23,132	64,955		1,741	579,227	2,273,219	338,177	1,905	476,841	
Rhode Island.	173,630	904,775	63,417	lb. 383	307		308	50	218,922	32,098	745	44,452	
Connecticut.	893,675	3,414,227	426,160	lb. 147	471		17,388	51,764	1,365,653	302,953	5,243	147,831	
New York.	4,012,144	30,090,508	3,160,910	763	6,567		2,103	10,093,991	10,497,032	1,732,357	14,700	3,788,173	2,924
New Jersey.*	396,573	2,074,112	326,96	33,710	1,922		1,966	56	1,315,676	562,863	9,416	197,856	2,200
Pennsylvania.	3,076,753	8,626,922	1,109,963	170,764	350,561		78,939	1,555,977	2,271,420	64,957	19,182	166,607	1,807
Delaware.	64,404	200,712	21,880	6024	272		1,442	36,246	132,446	25,914	529	5,562	
Maryland.*	500,499	1,029,919	110,836	34	18,916		2,290	36,246	66,558	114,339	7,623	230,985	
Virginia.	2,672,044	2,573,476	288,740	92,123	74,157		3,188	1,530,541	1,454,861	668,921	37,233	516,412	5,262
North Carolina,†	289,202	2,097,712	20,008	35	51,518		2,210	30,000	577,849	52,276	6,3	504,884	735
South Carolina.	363,340	1,154,356	9,264	1,787	164,551		3,208	231,140	552,805	135,446	6,319	106,066	153
Georgia.	3,666,844	5,629,784	1,029,311	252,520	6,023,309		4,317	6,989,088	1,705,134	461,191	161,844	303,519	430
Ohio.	1,029,526	2,373,034	30,512	45,053	26,542		1,163	251,745	930,603	366,707	653	200,266	3,119
Tennessee.	49,324	845,933	36,308		120,174		317	249,957	150,818	11,869	2,884	111,405	12,233
Louisiana.	173,400	1,507,000	13,933	5	214,307		1,351	10,135	197,442	33,161	11,253	233,828	107
Alabama.	185,859	1,538,628	171	16	83,451		85	70	389,177	41,119	12	162,084	2,248
Mississippi.	462,644	684,491	44,870	20,071	8,450,727		70	252,560	69,230	76,305	22	68,150	365
Missouri.	1,222,209	1,548,190	191,158	57,657	1,821,406		379	3,720,186	751,441	90,324	3,455	213,741	
Indiana.	600,366	1,956,887	156,442	50,326	415,706		1,171	394,446	433,873	118,638	471	195,070	
Illinois.	63,034	290,887	579	1,039	143,880		90	2,535	34,577	7,454		161,655	25
Michigan,§													
Arkansas.													
Florida Territory,§													
Wisconsin Territory,†	23,028	234,063	17,953	313	12,676			41,750	23,639	50		50,305	
Iowa Territory.	707	12,035	1,231		55,550		576		75,566	3,507	25		
District of Columbia.													

\* The returns of the states marked thus, (\*) have been corrected. The statistics from the states and territories are not yet examined.  
† Statistics not yet received.  
‡ The aggregate not yet made.  
§ Aggregate not made. No return from Middle Florida.

|| Some of the marshals have returned pounds of ginned cotton, others in the seed.

## COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## COMMERCE OF JAMAICA.

IMPORTS FOR 1838, 1839, AND 1840.

The following table exhibits the imports into the island of Jamaica, for the years 1838, '39, '40. It was compiled from official documents.

Articles.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Gallons Brandy, .....	28,654	37,129	64,456
do. Gin, .....	7,133	8,740	5,472
Barrels Flour, .....	69,111	64,631	131,745
do. Meal, .....	11,569	8,425	101,389
do. Bread, .....	6,883	9,815	21,325
Bags do. ....	393	683	747
Cwt. do. ....	1,075	1,511	26,003
Casks and Bags Rice, .....	17,687	8,592	28,981
Lbs. do. ....	265,082	447,183	3,824,588
Bushels and Barrels Corn, .....	33,041	49,464	75,418
Casks Dry Fish, .....	9,633	20,297	10,024
Boxes do. do. ....	9,387	18,933	21,885
Tierces do. do. ....	846	2,919	5,329
Barrels Packed Fish, .....	41,557	22,610	27,981
Kitts do. ....	1,304	3,814	1,433
Red Oak Staves, .....	2,017,482	1,587,500	5,056,750
White do. do. ....	1,283,571	1,107,055	512,337
Shingles, .....	9,407,611	7,910,965	8,356,710
Feet Lumber, .....	16,006,072	8,374,771	6,334,318
Wood Hoops, .....	825,634	860,287	1,015,381
Barrels Beef, .....	2,671	6,548	3,134
Barrels Pork, .....	9,299	14,653	21,182
Firkins Butter, Lard, &c., .....	17,997	24,836	21,150
Boxes Candles, .....	8,812	22,872	13,634
Boxes Soap, .....	11,350	33,557	38,864
Horses, .....	3,190	4,910	2,184
Mules, .....	988	629	168
Asses, .....	399	324	255
Cattle, .....	2,667	1,803	151
Tonnage, .....	113,345	111,088	121,881

## COMMERCE AND BUSINESS OF OSWEGO, 1840.

A late number of the Oswego Commercial Herald contains a statement of the commerce and business of that place, of which the following is an abstract :—

The registered tonnage of vessels owned at Oswego in 1840 is 8,346 tons, and the number of entrances and clearances of American vessels being generally schooners of large class, is 1,822. There was received at Oswego during the past year 764,657 bushels of wheat. Of which 672,790 bushels have been manufactured at the Oswego mills, and the residue been exported to the north, or gone east by canal. There were manufactured there in 1840, 145,000 barrels of flour, 35,000 of which were exported to Canada, and the residue sent down the canal or consumed at home. Of salt 205,000 barrels were received at that port by the Oswego canal from the Onondaga works, of which 153,538 barrels were shipped to the upper lakes, 42,000 barrels were exported to Canadian ports on Lake Ontario and the river St. Lawrence, and 14,544 barrels went to a domestic market, excepting a small quantity that remains on hand. A large quantity of agricultural and domestic products have been received there from the north, among which, 7,315 barrels of ashes, and nearly four millions of pounds of butter and cheese, have cleared for an eastern market by the canal. The tolls collected at the Oswego office for

1840 are \$51,239 23, to which the Oswego mills have contributed in tolls on flour and ship stuffs \$21,943 11, notwithstanding the large northern export of 35,477 barrels that went to market by the St. Lawrence. From the 1st of September to the close of the season, 100,000 barrels of flour were turned out at the Oswego mills, showing that they have ample power to manufacture a million of barrels during a season, if the market and profits would justify so large a business. "On the whole," says the Herald, "our commercial men have done an active, and, we believe, profitable business, with tolerably good prospects ahead for an active trade in the spring. The country is full of produce, and contracts are making by purchasers and forwarders. A large number of first-class vessels, and several steamboats are being built for the business of the ensuing season. Two fine vessels and a steamboat are building at Oswego, which will be ready for the spring trade. The American produce that went to the Montreal and Quebec markets during the past season amounts to two millions of dollars, and the 1,400 sail of square-rigged vessels that cleared from those ports during the same period, furnish some evidence of the growing Canadian trade. Stimulated and encouraged by the success that has hitherto rewarded their enterprise, our neighbors across the lake are on the alert, preparing, with ample means and increased capital, to compete for the products of the western states, and to divert the current of trade down the St. Lawrence."

#### TRADE, COMMERCE, AND NAVIGATION OF HAVANA.

The following is a statement of the arrivals at Havana during the year 1840:—

	Vessels.	Tons.		Vessels.	Tons.
Spanish,.....	551	70,903	Sardinian,.....	5	936½
American,.....	799	143,220½	Portuguese,.....	26	3,418
English,.....	75	13,115½	Mexican,.....	3	341
French, ..	29	5,827	Oriental,.....	1	175
Belgian,.....	16	3,426	Russian,.....	1	226
Dutch,.....	14	1,944			
Hamburg,.....	17	3,264	Total,.....	1,582	255,430½
Bremen,.....	25	4,292½	Total in 1839,.....	1,563	237,801½
Danish,.....	16	2,877½			
Prussian,.....	2	1,080	Increase in 1840,.....	19	17,629
Swedish,.....	2	383½			

#### Official statement of the imports and exports of Havana for the year 1840.

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
<i>From—</i>		<i>To Spain and foreign ports, in</i>	
Spain, in Spanish vessels,.....	\$3,590,332	Spanish vessels,.....	\$3,941,237
Foreign ports, in do. ....	5,204,031	The United States,.....	2,916,260
Spanish America, in do. ....	858,175	Great Britain,.....	1,459,570
	9,652,540	France,.....	473,438
		Belgium and Holland,.....	372,519
<i>Imports by—</i>		Germany,.....	1,228,434
United States vessels,.....	3,412,927	The Baltic,.....	505,586
English vessels,.....	749,849	Italy,.....	92,868
French vessels,.....	310,977	Portugal,.....	194,912
Flemish and Dutch vessels,.....	188,028		
German vessels,.....	207,770	Total,.....	\$11,184,828
Danish vessels,.....	1,030		
Turkish vessels,.....	901	Importation of specie during the year,	
Italian vessels,.....	13,909	\$635,500; exported, \$843,417.	
Portuguese vessels,.....	8,204	The import of flour was 128,801 bbls., of	
		which 79,198 bbls. came from Spain, and	
Total,.....	\$14,556,138	39,701 from the United States.	

The whole amount of the commercial revenue was \$5,075,957. The internal taxes, &c., amounted to \$1,415,448; total, \$6,491,406.

A comparative view between 1839 and 1840 shows a difference in favor of the commerce of the port of \$1,442,257.



*Statement of the Tobacco, Snuff, and Manufactured Tobacco, exported from  
the United States, annually—from 1821 to 1840, inclusive.*

YEARS.	Hogsheads.	Value.	Average value per Hogshead.	Pounds of Snuff.	Pounds of Manu- factured Tobacco.	Value of Snuff and Manufactured Tobacco.	Total Value of Tobacco Trade.
1821	66,858	\$5,648,962	\$84 49	44,552	1,332,949	\$149,083	\$5,798,045
1822	83,169	6,222,838	74 82	44,602	1,414,424	157,182	6,380,020
1823	99,009	6,282,272	63 46	36,684	1,987,507	154,955	6,437,627
1824	77,883	4,855,566	62 34	45,174	2,477,990	203,789	5,059,355
1825	75,984	6,115,623	80 48	53,920	1,871,368	172,353	6,287,976
1826	64,098	5,347,208	83 42	61,801	2,179,774	210,134	5,557,342
1827	100,025	6,577,123	65 75	45,812	2,730,255	239,024	6,816,147
1828	96,278	5,269,960	54 73	35,655	2,637,411	210,747	5,480,707
1829	77,131	4,982,974	64 60	19,509	2,619,399	202,306	5,185,370
1830	83,810	5,586,365	66 65	29,425	3,199,151	246,747	5,833,112
	824,245	\$56,889,291	\$69 11	417,134	22,450,228	\$1,946,410	\$58,835,701
1831	86,718	\$4,892,388	\$56 40	27,967	3,639,856	292,475	\$5,184,863
1832	106,806	5,999,769	56 18	31,175	3,456,071	295,771	6,295,540
1833	83,153	5,755,968	69 29	13,453	3,790,310	288,973	6,044,941
1834	87,979	6,595,305	74 96	57,826	3,956,579	328,409	6,923,714
1835	94,353	8,250,577	87 01	36,471	3,817,854	357,611	8,608,188
1836	109,442	10,058,640	91 54	46,018	3,246,675	435,464	10,494,104
1837	100,232	5,795,647	57 82	40,883	3,615,591	427,836	6,223,483
1838	100,593	7,392,029	73 48	75,083	5,008,147	577,420	7,969,449
1839	78,995	9,832,943	124 47	42,467	4,214,943	616,212	10,449,155
1840	119,484	9,883,957	81 05	.....	.....	.....	.....
	967,755	\$74,457,223	\$76 83	371,343	34,746,026	\$3,620,171	\$68,193,437
Total,	1,729,000	\$131,346,514	\$73 21	788,477	57,196,254	\$5,566,581	\$127,029,138

Statement, showing to what countries the larger portion of the Tobacco is exported.

YEARS.	ENGLAND.		FRANCE.		HOLLAND.		GERMANY.		ALL OTHER COUNTRIES.	TOTAL.
	Hhds.	Value.	Hhds.	Value.	Hhds.	Value.	Hhds.	Value.		
1821	19,695	\$1,995,667	3,478	\$381,048	13,216	\$968,760	10,472	\$766,222	19,997	66,858
1822	26,740	2,436,805	4,665	550,591	23,584	1,339,618	11,757	734,419	16,423	83,169
1823	31,999	2,511,896	7,661	992,829	30,390	1,384,683	15,259	660,088	13,700	99,009
1824	19,418	1,646,444	4,469	528,901	23,159	1,159,883	12,808	534,858	18,029	77,883
1825	22,293	2,071,474	6,096	888,966	21,998	1,653,087	12,051	605,176	13,546	75,984
1826	25,854	2,741,980	10,739	827,913	15,465	948,279	7,523	340,782	4,517	64,098
1827	28,918	2,310,543	8,963	1,057,577	25,553	1,192,288	19,420	936,345	17,171	100,025
1828	25,176	1,619,524	5,909	800,606	21,216	818,815	23,949	900,574	20,028	96,278
1829	21,916	1,520,109	6,835	930,737	21,522	1,053,059	10,958	558,009	15,900	77,131
1830	19,910	1,537,744	7,007	995,996	22,576	1,035,756	15,318	751,860	18,999	83,810
	241,919	\$20,392,176	65,822	\$7,955,164	218,679	\$11,654,228	139,515	\$6,788,333	158,310	824,245
1831	26,372	\$1,851,717	1,673	\$151,080	23,917	\$1,104,198	19,833	\$909,246	14,923	86,718
1832	36,176	2,319,596	5,779	669,562	24,006	1,115,962	27,930	1,192,024	12,915	106,806
1833	23,772	2,245,738	4,782	692,416	19,022	883,625	21,408	1,091,436	14,169	83,153
1834	30,658	2,937,020	4,775	623,078	19,101	1,012,442	20,611	1,126,728	12,834	87,979
1835	27,563	3,397,415	6,312	864,351	17,730	902,911	27,989	1,539,362	14,759	94,353
1836	36,822	4,222,592	7,856	908,699	19,148	1,057,830	22,246	1,252,299	23,370	109,442
1837	20,723	1,750,065	9,110	723,842	22,739	930,657	28,863	1,128,229	18,797	100,232
1838	24,312	2,638,643	15,511	1,237,128	17,558	879,019	25,571	1,184,889	17,641	100,593
1839	30,068	5,362,331	9,574	901,950	12,273	833,178	14,303	994,508	12,777	78,995
1840	26,255	3,077,178	15,640	1,634,076	29,534	1,533,415	25,649	1,527,132	22,406	119,484
	282,721	\$29,802,290	81,012	\$8,406,182	205,028	\$10,253,237	234,403	\$11,945,853	164,591	967,755
Total,	524,640	\$50,194,466	146,834	\$16,361,346	423,707	\$21,907,465	373,918	\$18,734,186	322,901	1,792,000

## EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES.

The preceding tables, with the accompanying remarks, were prepared by SAMUEL HAZARD, Esq., of the United States Commercial and Statistical Register. They are compiled from official documents, and exhibit in a clear and comprehensive form the condition and progress of the tobacco trade for the last twenty years.

The tables furnish a view of the tobacco trade, from 1821 to 1840.

It appears that during that period there were exported 1,792,000 hogsheads, valued by the treasury department at \$131,346,514; being an annual average of 89,600 hogsheads, or \$6,567,325.

During the years 1821 to 1839, (we have not received the account of 1840,) there were exported 788,477 pounds of snuff, and 57,196,254 pounds manufactured tobacco; valued together at \$5,556,581.

For the first ten years of the series, 1821 to 1830, there were exported 824,245 hogsheads of tobacco, valued at \$56,889,291; and during the last ten years, 1830 to 1840, 967,755 hogsheads, valued at \$74,457,223; being an excess in the last ten years over the first ten, of 143,510 hogsheads, or \$17,567,932.

The average annual export in the first ten years was 82,424 hogsheads, or \$5,688,929; and during the second ten years, 96,775 hogsheads, or \$7,445,722.

The average price during the whole twenty years was \$73 21 per hogshead. For the first ten years, \$69 11, and for the second ten years, \$76 83; or if 1,200 be taken as the average weight of the hogshead, the price during the twenty years will be 6 10-100 cents per pound; first ten years, 5½ cents, and second ten years, 6 40-100 cts. per pound.

It is to be regretted that an account of the quantities of tobacco, the produce of the different states, has not been kept, as the quality of each varies, as does also the size of the hogsheads.

It will be observed, that owing to the short crop in 1839, the average price exceeds that of other years very considerably.

It is remarkable how nearly uniform has been the quantity annually exported for the last twenty years, with the exception of four or five years.

The second table presents a view of the exports to those countries which receive from the United States the largest share of our export of tobacco.

The whole amount sent in twenty years was—

To England.....	524,640 hhds.	\$50,194,466
To France.....	146,834 "	16,361,346
To Holland.....	423,707 "	21,907,465
To Germany.....	373,918 "	18,734,186
All other countries.....	322,901 "	24,149,051

Total..... 1,792,000 \$131,346,514

In the first ten years there were shipped to England..... 241,919 hhds.

In the second ten years there were shipped to England..... 282,721 "

Being an increase in the last period of..... 40,802 "

The average annual export to England during the twenty years, was 26,132 hhds., valued at \$2,509,723.

To France in the ten years, 1821 to 1830, were exported..... 65,822 hhds.

To France in the ten years, 1830 to 1840, were exported..... 81,012 "

Being an increase in ten years of..... 15,190 "

The annual average to France is 7,341 hhds., or \$818,067.

To Holland there were exported, from 1821 to 1830..... 218,679 hhds.

To Holland there were exported, from 1830 to 1840..... 205,028 "

Being a decrease in the last ten years of..... 13,651 "

The average annual export is 21,185 hhds., or \$1,095,373.



To Germany, from 1821 to 1830, were exported..... 139,515 hhds.  
 To Germany, from 1830 to 1840, were exported..... 234,403 "

Being an increase of..... 94,888 "

The average annual export is 18,695 hhds., or \$936,709.

To all other countries the exports were, in 1821 to 1830..... 158,310 hhds.

To all other countries the exports were, in 1830 to 1840..... 164,591 "

Being an increase of..... 6,281 "

Of other countries: Gibraltar, on an average of the three last years, receives annually 5,130 hhds.; Sweden and Norway, 1,564 hhds.; Belgium, 1,255 hhds.; Italy, 1,660 hhds.; Cuba, 769 hhds.; Africa, 1,108 hhds.; Spain, 1,067 hhds.; Scotland, 854 hhds.

#### IRON TRADE OF NEWPORT AND CARDIFF, WALES.

The following statement of the iron trade from 1829 to 1840, inclusive, is derived from Hazard's Statistical Register:—

Iron sent down the Glamorganshire Canal.		Iron sent down the Monmouthshire Canal.		Coal carried on the Glamorganshire Canal.	
	Tons.		Tons.		Tons.
1829.....	83,876	1829.....	119,082½	1829.....	83,729
1830.....	81,548	1830.....	115,755	1830.....	106,170
1831.....	70,333	1831.....	119,569½	1831.....	117,134
1832.....	83,677	1832.....	124,705½	1832.....	165,351
1833.....	112,315	1833.....	125,433½	1833.....	184,261
1834.....	110,012	1834.....	130,042½	1834.....	183,953
1835.....	119,858	1835.....	155,588½	1835.....	176,374
1836.....	123,088	1836.....	151,957½	1836.....	192,241
1837.....	124,810	1837.....	143,213½	1837.....	226,671
1838.....	130,637	1838.....	167,478½	1838.....	189,081
1839.....	132,781			1839.....	211,214
1840.....	132,002		1,352,826½	1840.....	248,484
		Sent to Newport.			
	1,305,957	1839.....	175,211		
		1840.....	194,459		
			369,670		

A Table, showing the draft and tonnage of various classes of vessels which enter the port of New York, when deeply laden.

CLASSES AND NAMES.	Tonnage.	Draft.
SHIPS OF WAR—Pennsylvania.....	2900	27 ft. 6 in.
<i>Ships of the Line</i> —Independence, Delaware, North Carolina.....	2300	25 8
<i>Frigates</i> , 1st class—Brandywine, United States, Potomac, &c....	1600	23
Do. 2d class—Congress, Constellation, &c.....	1300	21
<i>Sloops</i> , 1st class—John Adams, Cyane, &c.....	650	17 6
Do. 2d class—Erie, Ontario, and Boston, &c.....	504	15 9
<i>Brigs</i> —Dolphin, Consort, Pioneer, &c.....	210	13
<i>12-gun Schooners</i> —Grampus, Shark, Enterprise, &c.....	190	12 8
<i>Steamers</i> —Missouri, &c.....	1700	18 8
MERCHANTMEN, &c.—Steamship British Queen.....	2366	18
“ Great Western.....	1750	17 6
Ship <i>Cornelia</i> .....	1065	17 6
“ <i>Roscus</i> .....	1030	17 6
“ <i>Garrick</i> .....	995	17
“ <i>Sheridan</i> .....	995	17
“ <i>Siddons</i> .....	995	17
“ <i>Patrick Henry</i> .....	868	17 6
“ <i>Stephen Whitney</i> .....	860	18 6
CANAL BOATS—Erie Canal.....	50	3 6
Do. Enlarged.....	150	6
Delaware and Raritan Canal.....	180	6

*Statement of the number of arrivals and tonnage of vessels at the port of New York, from 1810 to 1840 inclusive; from official authority.*

Year.	Arrivals.	Tonnage.		Year.	Arrivals.	Tonnage.	Increase, etc.
1810	2341	274,943½	Increase of Tonnage since 1820.	1826	2964	402,446	56 62.100
1811	2028	249,910½		1827	2911	442,406½	72 18.100
1812	1795	194,301½		1828	2656	412,937½	60 71.100
1813	1319	143,729½		1829	2716	417,961½	62 66.100
1814	788	48,631½		1830	1986	405,307	57 74.100
1815	2120	291,072½		1831	2080	427,601½	66 41.100
1816	2224	331,076½		1832	2292	492,310	91 6.10
1817	2097	288,547½		1833	2437	521,510	102 96.100
1818	2273	297,196½		1834	2427	535,497½	108 4.10
1819	1675	266,840		1835	2450	555,056	116 2.100
1820	1947	256,951½		1836	2719	647,322	151 92.100
1821	2061	274,314½	6 76.100	1837	2598	629,965	145 17.100
1822	2242	319,940½	24 51.100	1838	1962	559,483	117 74.100
1823	2423	350,785	36 52.100	1839	2573	655,927½	155 27.100
1824	2612	372,576	45	1840	2479	618,186	140 58.100
1825	2778*	420,814½	63 73.100				

In addition to these arrivals, which are from foreign and coastwise ports, there are about 1050 schooners, sloops, &c., employed in coasting inland, not included in the above, averaging about 75 tons, making 78,750 tons. These vessels are here probably every week during the season of navigation, and about 75 steamboats, which probably are here about every other day; tonnage, 30,760.

## MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

### QUALIFICATIONS OF A MERCHANT.

The most important requisite for forming a merchant is, his having on all occasions a strict regard to truth, and his avoiding fraud and deceit as corroding cankers that must inevitably destroy his reputation and fortune. An accomplished merchant should be acquainted with the following branches of mercantile learning, which are worthy of the serious attention of every one who has the prospect of being employed in commercial pursuits. He should be able to write properly and correctly; understand all the rules of arithmetic that have any relation to commerce; know how to keep books by double and single entry, as journal, ledger, &c.; be expert in the forms of invoices, accounts of sales, policies of insurance, charter-parties, bills of lading, and bills of exchange; and know the agreement between the moneys, weights, and measures of all countries with which he has intercourse. If he deals in silk, woollen, linen, or hair manufactures, he ought to know the places where the different kinds of merchandises are manufactured, in what manner they are made, what are these materials of which they are composed, and from whence they come, the preparation of the materials before working up, and the places to which they are sent after their fabrication. He should know the lengths and breadths which silk, woollen, or hair-stuffs, linen, cottons, fustians, &c., ought to have according to the several statutes and regulations of the places where they are manufactured, with their different prices, according to the times and seasons; and if he can add to his knowledge the different dyes and ingredients which form the various colors, it will not be useless. If he confines his trade to that of oils, wines, cotton, sugar, coffee, &c., he should inform himself particularly of the appearance of the succeeding crops, in order to regulate his disposing of what he has on hand; and to learn as exactly as he can, what they have produced when got in, for his agent or director in making the necessary pur-

chases and engagements. He should be acquainted with the kinds of merchandise found more in one country than another, those which are scarce, their different species and qualities, and the most proper method of bringing them to a good market; to know which are the merchandises permitted or prohibited, as well on entering as going out of the states or country where they are made; to be acquainted with the prices of exchange, and what is the cause of its rise and fall; to know the customs due on importation of merchandises in the places to which he trades; to know the best manner of packing up, embalming, or turning the merchandises; to understand the prices and condition of freighting, and insuring ships and merchandise; to be acquainted with the goodness and value of all necessaries for the construction, repairs, and fitting out of shipping, also with the different manner of their building; to know the wages commonly given to the captains, officers, and sailors, and the manner of engaging with them. It would be useful for him to understand the French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and German languages, or that of any other country with which he has commercial intercourse. Although trade is of so universal a nature that it is impossible for the laws of one country to determine all the affairs relating to it, and all civilized nations show a particular regard to the "Law Merchant," or the law made by merchants among themselves, he should be acquainted with the consular jurisdiction, with the laws and customs of different countries, and in general all the ordinances and regulations that have any relation to commerce, both at home and abroad.

#### MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

The Board of Directors take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of the following donations:—

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"Birds of America, from Original Drawings by John James Audubon, F.R.S., &c. &c.," four volumes, folio; accompanied with "Ornithological Biography," by the same, five volumes, octavo: the above valuable work having been purchased for the library by the subscriptions of numerous members of the association, by the contribution of the trustees of Clinton Hall Association, and by the donations of various merchants and others, friends of the institution.

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By order,

R. E. LOCKWOOD

New York, August, 1841.

*Corresponding Secretary.*



# DURATION OF LITERARY COPYRIGHT IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

In Prussia, the exclusive right of publication is guaranteed to authors during their lives, and to their heirs for thirty years afterward. This refers only to literary works. In works of art, plays, or music, the duration of copyright extends only to ten years after the author's death. In the Germanic Confederation, literary productions of all kinds, even works of art, are protected for ten years; but this period may be extended to twenty in favor of large works, requiring much labor and expense. The Germanic Confederation intend, however, to take the subject into deliberation next year, with a view to extend the minimum duration of copyright in literary works. In Russia, any author or translator of a book has the exclusive property in the work during his life, and his heirs or assigns for twenty-five years subsequent to his decease. In Belgium, the right is conceded to the author during his life, and to his widow and his heirs during their lives; but all right terminates after the death of the first generation of the author's heirs. In the Pontifical States, by an edict dated in 1826, authors and artists have the exclusive right to publish their works during their lives, and their heirs for twelve years after their death. In the United States, by an act of congress, dated in 1831, the copyright, which previously only lasted for fourteen years, was extended to twenty-eight years, with the right to further extension for fourteen years, if the author should survive the first term. In England, by the act of 1814, the copyright in literary works was extended to twenty-eight years, to the author and his assigns; and if at the end of that time the author survive, the copyright is extended for the rest of his life.

## SPURIOUS TEA.

The manufacture of tea is carried on to a great extent in Great Britain, and persons often fancy themselves indulging in the luxury of sipping the fragrant decoction of the Chinese herb, when perhaps they are swallowing with gusto the ill-flavored juices of the most common and despised plants in Old England. Imagination is a powerful agent in deceiving even intelligent people.

We find in a late English paper an account of a trial of Edward Glover, on a charge for having in his possession 2000 pounds of fabricated tea. An officer testified that having received a warrant to search the defendant's premises, he and two other persons proceeded there, and discovered an immense quantity of leaves closely resembling China tea. Some of it was in sacks and hampers, and a great portion was lying about for drying, for which purpose the place was fitted up with the necessary stoves and utensils. They immediately gave notice to government of the result of their investigation, and Mr. Bird, the surveying examiner-general of excise, was ordered to make a further examination. Mr. Bird stated he received possession of eight sacks of the rubbish, which was so fine an imitation of tea that at first sight any person would have supposed it to be the genuine article. On testing a sample from each sack, he found the whole to be composed of blackthorn, hawthorn, and fern leaves. Mr. Bird produced eight samples of the stuff, and mixed them with pure tea to the extent of one half of each. Mr. Bird observed that he would convince the bench still further of the extent to which the public was imposed on, and he exhibited various infusions of tea with and without the rubbish, and the appearance was so good that any one was liable to be taken in by it. The court observed that the poor, in particular, must have suffered dreadfully by the vile imitation. Mr. Bird said it had a very great sale among tea-dealers.

It appeared in the course of the trial, that the leaves which so closely approached the appearance of tea were manufactured expressly for being mixed with pure tea, not only to the injury of the revenue, but to the consumers of tea. Mr. Bird was asked how the stuff was sold to the grocers and tea-dealers. He said at the rate of 1s. 6d. per lb., and they retailed it at 4s. and 4s. 6d. per lb. The court, after consulting, ordered the de-

defendant to pay a penalty of £200. The penalties were laid at £1,000. A warrant was issued for the burning of the leaves, and another for the recovery of the penalty. In default of payment, the defendant would suffer imprisonment, with hard labor, for the space of twelve months.

#### PROGRESS OF THE SUGAR TRADE IN THE UNITED STATES.

The amount of sugar shipped from New Orleans in 1830 was trifling. In 1836 the quantity amounted to 6,461,500 pounds. In 1840 it had increased to 47,005,500 pounds. The amount sent to the interior for the Valley of the Mississippi, we have no means of ascertaining; the quantity, however, must be very considerable. This is more than one fifth of all the sugar made of cane, which is consumed in the United States, as there was about 190,000,000 pounds imported in 1839. Should the manufacture of sugar increase for the next five years as it has done for the last five, we shall make all our own sugar. We paid to foreigners, in 1839, for sugar, the sum of \$9,924,622, which exceeds in value any one article of our exports, except cotton. The shipments of molasses, too, from New Orleans to our eastern cities, has increased in the same proportion, they being, in 1836, only 419,558 gallons; and in 1840, 3,830,400 gallons. In 1839, we imported 23,094,677 gallons, valued at \$4,364,234.

#### BOSTON ICE TRADE.

There are now sixteen companies in Boston engaged in the business of shipping ice to the East and West Indies, and to New Orleans and other southern ports. The demand for the article is now so great for exportation, that large contracts have been made for it in Worcester county, to be transported to Boston by railroad. They formerly sold their ice in New Orleans at six cents a pound, but now sell it at one cent; and where they made one dollar at selling it at six cents, they now make four dollars by selling it at one cent a pound. When it sold at six cents, none but the wealthy could afford to purchase, but at one cent all classes buy it, so it is sold before much of it is wasted by melting. The ice is sawed by a machine into square blocks, not less than twelve inches thick, and is packed on board the vessels with straw and hay, boxed with thin lumber, made air tight. One of the Boston companies paid last year \$7,000 for the straw and hay they used for packing.

#### COMMERCIAL RESOURCES OF THE SOUTH.

"The staple productions of the world belong to the south," says the *Macon Telegraph*, "and if she wisely avail herself of the great variety of soil and climate which are in her possession, in a greater degree, we believe, than any other section in the Union, she is destined, ere long, to be the most enterprising and wealthy portion of the confederacy—a mart where men of trade 'will' always 'congregate.' She will deal out to all with a prodigal, nay even with a liberal hand, her valuable and various products, and while benefiting them she will enrich herself. Her cottons are superior to all others, and form a staple basis which will attract capital to her from almost every quarter. Her tobacco is as rich to her as the opium to the east, and will continue to increase in value. Her vineyards may be made as profitable to her as those of Italy and France. Her sugar plantations will soon be more fruitful and profitable than those of the West Indies. Her immense forests in Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi, will also soon give her a decided ascendancy in the lumber market, and—her silk establishments will, at no remote day, in their works, vie in beauty, durability, and productiveness, with any quarter of the globe, if, indeed, the south does not excel them in the manufacture and cultivation of this valuable fabric.